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## LINCOLN THE SPEAKER

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ABRAHAM LINCOLN first saw the skies of central Illinois from his place beside an ox-cart Thomas Lincoln had improvised for conveying his family over frozen trails from Indiana. Long, lank, and leathery, he walked the crusted turf with the shambling gait of an Indian, pointing his toes straight ahead and planting down one ponderous foot directly in the path of the other. He wore a jeans coat, buckskin breeches plastered with mud and water, and a coonskin cap; and in his hand he carried "the gad," the badge of equality recognized in the cabins of prairiedom. There was no mistaking his rank as he appeared early in March, 1830; he was the plowman from Pigeon Creek, who became the Railsplitter of 1860.

Let us look ahead seven years from this event to a day in April, 1837, when Lincoln rode horseback into the new State Capital, Springfield, there to make his home. At that time he was insolvent; the horse he rode, in fact, was borrowed for the purpose. But intellectually he had made progress. He had become a lawyer. He had become the leader of a devoted clan recruited throughout Sangamon county; and he had become a politician—tactful, diplomatic, and adroit in the management of things political—a member of the General Assembly, and an authority high in the Sangamon councils of Whiggery. What is important to us who would trace his rise as a speaker, he had become skilled in the graces of the raconteur and proficient in the hurlyburly of harangue rampant on the frontier stump.

Let us play the Boswell and journey with Lincoln over that span of years; and as we go along with him let us note how the

miracle of accident vied with circumstance, and how the aptitudes of his nature vied with both, to cause him to emerge as a lawyer-politician, strangely popular with people, and conditioned to the conversation and the oratory peculiar to the plains.

The story of our pilgrimage begins when the inglorious cavalcade out of Pigeon Creek jolted to a stop on the plains in Macon county, southwest of Decatur, terminating the fifteen-day trek from Indiana. Thomas Lincoln built a shelter for his family forthwith; and after April showers had mellowed the barriers of snow banking the landscape, Abraham Lincoln broke home ties and struck out across the prairies to earn his own livelihood.

In the adventure that befell him, speech played a significant part; but the connotations of the term are so subtle that we digress to define it. Let us remember for the purpose of this article that the language of speech is written in air, and that the symbols of its alphabet are the intangibles of articulate sounds, tones of voice, and bodily action. It is the stuff of breath and motion, as fugitive and fleeting as laughter. By that limitation, the pages designed to pass as Lincoln's words in his *Complete Works* fail in their purpose. The printed symbols may suggest to some his philosophy of government, the clarity of his thinking, the vigor of his logic; they may suggest to others attributes of his literary art. But a speech once uttered vanishes like a bubble, and cold ink fails to rekindle in us the glow of the man in the focus of the crowd. Speech always denotes the articulate man in conscious contact with men. It implies the nearness of an audience and the vitality of an occasion, as well as the presence of the speaker himself—the intonations of his voice, the sweep of his arm, the look in his eye. Speech is personality in action.

The corollary follows that whilst the speaking Lincoln did in public commands a place of importance in our narrative, the speaking he did in private—in conversation and in conference—likewise has its rightful place in it. That is inevitable because it takes only two to make a speech—one to speak and another to hear. The story of the speaker, Lincoln, in sum, is the story of his association with men.

Prior to beginning the story of that association in the years following his arrival in Illinois, let us learn what manner of man it was who came out of Indiana to shoulder his way into the esteem of men. Above all else (and any account of him must be sunk in this postulate), Lincoln had the iron of ambition in his blood. It was the stuff on which he fed during the early years of his career. That he

cared nothing for the dictates of fashion is a fact known to schoolboys. Crackers and cheese gratified his palate; and he found no solace in cocktails or tobacco. He had no desire to mingle with the blue stockings or to establish his residence on the Gold Coast. And Midas never so much as touched finger to the hem of his linen duster. The *drive* in Lincoln was intellectual. Nor was he disturbed by the moonings of romance that normally plague a stripling of two-and-twenty summers. The biological urges in the man were so ordered. But the bauble called fame dangled before him, and on that prize he set his soft gray eyes with the ardor of a votary. In some inarticulate way he dreamed of lifting himself above the ranks of mediocrity into which he was born, and of gaining for himself a place in the sun.

A fondness for people collectively also characterized Lincoln. That observation is not intended to imply that he allowed the busybodies, or even his own professional associates, to become intimate with him; for he held everyone at arm's length, like an Emerson, and treated individual men with an attitude of *familiar dignity*, as James Russell Lowell described it. Excepting with Joshua Speed, he never experienced a depth of friendship with any person; even the warm approaches William Herndon made toward him curded under a steady eye of aloofness. In the sense that others failed to break down a wall of reserve, he was a man of solitude: it would appear that the shades of the forest had crept into his blood and chilled it. Colleagues dubbed him as *secretive*, *mysterious*, and *melancholy*, and with ample propriety. Yet, paradoxically, the *herd* impulse dominated his nature and activated his daily routine. He never outgrew the *gang* stage of adolescence. That is the important thought. Lincoln always tingled to the touch of the crowd at his elbows, as some men sway to the strains of martial music in their ears. He liked to look into the eyes of men in groups, to hear the hum of their voices in congregations, to sense the thrill of minds contacting minds in carnivals of gaiety or in tussles of controversy. And no farm boy hastened to market faster than he hastened to the crowd.

The consequences of that attitude were significant. With eyes fixed on the crowd, Lincoln tended to merge his own identity with that of the crowd, to interpret social events in terms of the crowd, and to give his sense of loyalty to the crowd. He could construe the words, "We, the people," for example, as "*We*, the people," and not as "*I*, the people." Such objectivity of attitude fitted neatly into

the baggage of a man destined to go far in public life. Oriented in the crowd, Lincoln shunned the silence of the study for the rumble of the market, there to discover what lay closest to men's hearts. Living among free men, he heard the crowd declare the glory of the majority, and to proclaim the common advantage as the end of government; and learning these things from the lips of his own colleagues, he further equipped himself for public service in a democracy.

Poets sometime lament the fate of men rendered inglorious by their own muteness, but members of a free society seldom cast their votes for them on election day. Lincoln's need was patent. He must voice whatever wisdom that was his in order to pass as a man of wisdom: he must validate his integrity by making it real to others. If he could do that, the pot of fame swinging at the rainbow's end might be within his reach; for a leader's signal contribution to the public is to phrase what the community of men may desire but cannot express in words. That expression achieved, the rest follows logically; by applauding its spokesman, the crowd applauds itself vicariously, because it is their own sentiments returning to them in intelligible language that inflates their pride. It follows that the crowd will clutch madly at the coat-tails of any man who embodies its own hopes and aspirations in his words. By a gift of speech Lincoln met the need; by the magic of that gift he was enabled to reveal to others whatever of prince or cockney lay within him.

Possessing a skill in speech in which to express a character so magnetic that myriads of men have been attracted to it, Lincoln set forth from his father's dwelling for Tipperary in long league boots, energized by ambition, and dominated by a community disposition.

The journey had but begun when a situation developed that threw those traits into gear. The incident alluded to occurred in the summer of 1830, in the progress of the first political campaign Lincoln witnessed in Illinois. Accompanied by John Hanks, his faithful Achates, he attended a rally of that campaign held somewhere in Macon county, likely in front of James Renshaw's store and tavern in Decatur.[1] William Lee D. Ewing, a man of breeding and educa-

[1] Edwin Davis, "Lincoln and Macon County, Illinois, 1830-1831," JOURNAL OF THE ILLINOIS STATE HISTORICAL SOCIETY. April-July, 1932, XXV, 100. Tradition lingers that in the summer of 1830 Lincoln made several speeches in Macon county, one of which is supposed to have been made in Warneck's harvest field. (Davis, 97.) The election was held on August 2, 1830.

tion, and well known in Illinois politics at the time, made the principal speech at that meeting; accordingly, Ewing probably earned the distinction of being the best politician of prominence whom Lincoln heard on the stump in Illinois. When Ewing was done speaking, another candidate for the General Assembly, John F. Posey, took the stand. At that moment, by a quirk of fate, Lincoln stood on the brink of his own career as a stump speaker. When Hanks asserted with gross bluntness that Posey had made a *bad* speech, and that Lincoln could *beat* it, Lincoln's stump career had actually begun.[2]

Challenged by the implications of that boast, Lincoln stepped jauntily upon the box Hanks had turned down for his convenience and said something about the splendors that would come to Illinois under a program of internal improvements.[3] It took no coaxing to bring him to the stand. He made no excuses for being unprepared to speak. The word was given and he spoke. That was the crux of it. A forwardness in speech acquired at Pigeon Creek in his teens governed his behavior in the emergency. Clad in light blue jeans coat, short in the sleeves and waist, in trousers that failed to meet the tops of his low-cut shoes by inches, and wearing a broad-brimmed hat, in outward appearance, in awkwardness of movement, and in humble origin, he was the rustic who but recently had plodded into Illinois beside a yoke of oxen. But in spirit he was the daring debater, eager to match wits with his fellows, conscious of some gift of speech, and intent on stamping the mark of his own merit on the imaginations of his associates.

But his purse was empty; and by that token fate decreed he must earn his bread by the sweat of his brow. He worked in the fields and on construction jobs, mauled a few logs reluctantly, served as an

[2] W. D. Howells and J. G. Hays, *Lives and Speeches of Abraham Lincoln and Hannibal Hamlin*. (Columbus, Ohio, 1860), 27-8.

[3] If, as is probable, Lincoln urged that the Sangamon river be opened to navigation as far as Decatur, the following extract taken from the HOUSE JOURNAL, January 31, 1831, is highly suggestive of the impression he made on his audience:

"On motion of Mr. Posey, Resolved by the House of Representatives, that the committee on Internal Improvements be instructed to inquire into the expediency of opening the navigation of the Sangamon river as far as Decatur in Macon County." (Davis, 99.)

Ewing and Posey both were elected to the Legislature in 1830; and in the session of 1836-1838 Lincoln met both of them at Vandalia, and engaged in a bitter controversy with the former.

impromptu cook in camp, and again voyaged down the Mississippi river on a flatboat. In those contacts he talked and joked with his colleagues, shared with them the bitter wine of their poverty, and captured the philosophy of men lost in the fringes of civilization. He displayed his glibness grandiosely, reciting snatches of poetry, declaiming periods of orations, repeating his fund of droll stories, and stirring the *pot pourri* of politics vigorously. Because the patter of wit, a story well-told, and a display of learning, fall like a benediction on men in solitude, companions came to accept Lincoln as a youth of promise. Denton Offut, a small entrepreneur, was particularly impressed by the sprightliness of the lad's talk. Therein the hand of fate again appeared; for when Offut projected a venture in groceries and drygoods at New Salem, Lincoln jumped at the opportunity to work for him. The proffer meant escape from the isolation of the woods and the drudgery of the fields; and, residing in a huddle of cabins, and playing the merchant behind a counter, he could appease the hunger of his yearning for the fanfare of the crowd.

He became a resident of the mushroom colony of New Salem in July, 1831. At the gristmill standing at the foot of the hill, at an election booth, in the kitchen of a cabin, or on the village campus, he talked and talked with the self-same assurance that had characterized his behavior at Pigeon Creek. A repertory of tall stories, his feats of mimicry, his pranks of ventriloquism, and his blasts of satire, all rendered with a merry twinkle of the eye and tuned to the soft cadence of a Kentucky drawl, catapulted the Clary Grove boys into tumults of laughter, and brightened the watchfires at the mosquito-ridden bivouacs of the Black Hawk uprising. Among companions more sedate he quoted poetry, declaimed passages of orations, and ventured opinions on the welfare of the Republic, the fallibility of disputed passages of Scripture, and the potentialities of the Sangamon river as a channel of trade. The spot of ground where he stood approximated the forum of the community.

He entered lustily into the meetings of discussion and debate, declamation and epistolary, composition and dramatics, sponsored by the New Salem Literary Society, and by neighborhood groups organized for purposes of culture and forensics. In floor debate he was at his best, and showed zest in analyzing propositions like, *Are the pioneers of the West entitled to a pension? Which is dearer to man, Life or Liberty? Which is the greater evil, Slavery or Intemper-*

*ance, in the United States? Would it be policy in Illinois to go in and borrow money to complete the Northen Canal, or let it out to a company under certain restrictions? Supposing a law be passed freeing the Negroes, which would be the most politic in the United States, to educate them and make them equal citizens with us or colonize them in another land (and) hold them as other allies?*[4]

At first he was as crude a craftsman as could be expected from a tall youth who plunged his hands deep into the pockets of his pantaloons and intoned his voice in the upper levels of pitch. But the facility with which he laid bare the core of issues offset any distraction promoted by his lack of physical control. Colleagues noted that phenomenon, and none more quickly than James Rutledge, presiding officer over the Society when Lincoln made his bow before it. The consequence was that Rutledge began to take a more personal interest in Lincoln.[5]

A significant clue lies in that fact. The talisman of speech that attracted Rutledge to Lincoln likewise attracted others to him: the accessions were many, until, in a few brief months, Lincoln became the most popular man on New Salem Hill. The logic of cause and effect was spinning its web around him.

Manifestations of his popularity abound in the chronicles recording his experiences at New Salem. He became the fair-haired child of the rollicking blades squatted in Clary's Grove, and likewise won the esteem of the more conservative men of the colony. Mentor Graham tutored him in the rudiments of English grammar, and edited some of his manuscripts. John Calhoun encouraged him to study the elements of surveying, and appointed him Deputy Surveyor of Sangamon county. Dr. Jason Duncan headed a movement that led to his appointment as postmaster of the settlement. Bowling Green taught him the procedure of the *Squire's* court, and the vagabond Jack Kelso lolled on the bank of the Sangamon and read poetry to him. He recruited a company of volunteers at the outbreak of the Black Hawk insurrection, and was elected captain of it. By common consent he was accepted as master of ceremonies at wrestling bouts and horse races, at foot races and in other contests of skill and

[4] These questions were debated at the Rock Creek Lyceum, located near New Salem, shortly after Lincoln moved from New Salem to Springfield in 1837. See JOURNAL OF THE ILLINOIS STATE HISTORICAL SOCIETY, April-July, XIX, 63-76.

[5] Ward H. Lamon, *Life of Abraham Lincoln.* (Boston, 1872), 121-22.)

strength indulged in by the community. Men took him into their homes and nursed him in his illness and shared their bread with him in his adversity.

Popularity implies the devotion of a following, and that following Lincoln acquired shortly after taking up his residence in New Salem. But it was a fellowship crystallized round his own personality, and not round some community issue. That circumstance held important implications.

New Salem smiled on Lincoln, patted him on the back affectionately, and warmed itself in the comfort of his companionship. But neighborly smiles butter no parsnips; appreciating the irony of the paradox, and realizing that Lincoln struggled wearily for food and shelter, the settlers of New Salem patiently awaited the coming of some opportunity to reward him with some adequate token of their appreciation. A gratitude no less than that is decreed by community decorum. The outlet for that sentiment was necessarily political. It was a decision reached without benefit of caucus, for a democratic society entertains the credo that a popular man is, *ipso facto,* deserving of a public office. It followed logically that Lincoln—his ear cupped to the whisperings of the Caesar within him—should heed the solicitations of friends and enter politics; he became a candidate for the General Assembly in March, 1832.[6] He lost the election that ensued, standing seventh among the thirteen candidates, four of whom were chosen. But as an expression of good will, Sangamon county cast more than half of its votes for him; and of the 208 votes in his home precinct, he received 205.[7]

We are now ready to conclude as follows: Lincoln was drawn into the kingdom of politics by the pull of his own peculiar abilities and inclinations, on the one hand, and on the other, by the push of the Armstrongs and the Rutledges, who offered him their good will and votes in return for the favor of his good fellowship.

It was a determinative situation in Lincoln's career. Esconced in politics, he found life more logical. The future, like a landscape after a storm, took on shape, color, and substance. A rift in the clouds had revealed to him a seat in the General Assembly, and that was

[6] Lincoln announced his candidacy in broadside under date of March 9, 1832. Meticulously composed, the document holds high interest for the student of Lincoln's early written style. We dismiss it as outside the scope of the present paper.

[7] Albert J. Beveridge, *Abraham Lincoln.* (Boston, 1928), I, 126.

sweet to a man who sought distinction. The energy of his nature became directed into objective channels, and a tangible lure beguiled his footsteps. Existence became an orderly process of living, for now he possessed an attitude of purpose—public office. He had primary interests in keeping with his desires—politics; and his full-charged tongue now contacted a heart vitally concerned with something definite to ponder.

That he should decide to enter the profession of law became a logical sequence in face of the circumstances. That calling proffered him a prestige advantageous to the practice of politics, and his own expertness in speech satisfied a requirement fundamental to the practice of law. But other considerations guided him to the decision. He long since had developed a distaste for the occupation of farming; he had failed miserably as a merchant, demonstrating his own ineptitude for commerce thereby; and he lacked every vestige of the orthodoxy required of any man who would lay his talents in speech on the altar of any sect.

Lowering his back further to the lash of logic, he began a study of the special types of literature suited to a preparation for the competition of the bar, and of the stump, against which he had elected to contend. He labored with a beginner's delight over Blackstone's *Commentaries* and explored the *Revised Laws of Illinois*. *Chitty on Pleading* apparently influenced him profoundly. True to Chitty's method throughout his life, he cultivated a strategy of debate designed to foist the burden of proof on the shoulders of his opponents, thereby delimiting his own responsibility.[8] He read law so sedulously, in fact, that his health broke under strain of the exertion, and people began to detect that *queerness* of behavior ascribed to him, particularly about the time of the death of Ann Rutledge, in 1835.

The *Sangamo Journal*, published twenty-odd miles distant, at Springfield, not only kept him informed on local happenings, but became the primer of his political education and sometimes carried his own opinions on matters of public policy. He advanced his own perspective to the outposts of national thought by poring over the pages of the *National Intelligencer*, the *Missouri Republican*, the

[8] A discussion of the defensive nature of Lincoln's debating technique in his debates with Douglas, in 1858, is offered in the writer's article, "A Footnote on the Lincoln-Douglas Debates," THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, April, 1932, 216-24.

*Louisville Journal,* and the *Cincinnati Gazette.*[9] The anecdotes and commentaries he gleaned from the columns of newspapers, including the texts of speeches made by Clay, Webster, and Calhoun, found repetition in his conversation, and served to confirm his own faith in the policies of the Whig party—the advantages of a tariff law, the need of a system of internal improvements national in scope, and the sanctity of the Union on Hamiltonian principles of government. Prevailing issues intrigued him. Already Webster's *Reply to Hayne* had exerted definitive influence on him; then, in December, 1832, he read the text of South Carolina's *Ordinance of Secession* and, afterward, the counter-argument it provoked in Jackson's *Proclamation.*[10] Impressions derived from that reading remained with him to the hour when in the darkness of disunion he penned his own trenchant First Inaugural Address. Clay became his "beau ideal" of political craftsmanship. His model orators were Calhoun and Webster. Washington continued to be his inspiration. But let there be no misunderstanding on the matter: the earth still rotated around Abraham Lincoln, the man who sought distinction, the plowman who had turned politician.

With sustained relevancy of purpose in his own career he dipped but lightly into the literature remote from law and politics, only glancing into the pages of chemistry, astronomy, and natural philosophy, all of which were available to him, and reading only snatches of Rollin's *Ancient History* and of Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.* In moments of relaxation he sometimes turned to the verses of Robert Burns, Lord Byron, and Shakespeare, and was further lured into the byways of rime by them. The free thinking polemics of Thomas Paine, Constantine de Volney, and possibly of Voltaire, nurtured the analytical faculties of his intellect: and the stern regimen of reasoning prosecuted by those intellectuals served as a palliative to the welter of sentimentalism to which Weem's *Life of Washington* had exposed him in the tenderness of his youth at Pigeon Creek. He perused biographies, American and British, and developed an antipathy for the insipidities of the historians. Yet let it be noted that he studied Kirkham's *Grammar* with the diligence of Chaucer's clerk, for that subject bore down hard on the goal he sought.[11]

[9] Beveridge, I, 128.
[10] Beveridge, I, 128-29.
[11] Beveridge, I, 135.

The range of his reading was narrow, pitifully narrow when measured by the needs of a man whose responsibilities at a later date would require a learning of encyclopedic vastness. Names like Sir Thomas More, Rousseau, Locke, Bacon, Adam Smith, and a host of other scholars whose words encompassed a wealth of wisdom for the sockless lad from Pigeon Creek, found no place among the volumes he read. In that omission of titles there is nothing strange. The plain fact is that Lincoln, being flesh and blood like the rest of us, manifested the ancient wisdom of considering the task of the moment as the objective of his endeavors: he looked upon his reading at New Salem as a need of the hour, and not as some inspired discipline for the lofty destiny in store for him that only the Sybils could have foretold. He read books at that time, in short, with one eye intently fixed on the bar, and with the other cocked on a seat in the General Assembly.

A stern logic had combined with a whimsical fate to direct Lincoln into the clearings of politics and law. With that development the first lap of the journey he made between 1830-1837 had ended. He was henceforth a public figure in the Sangamon country.

Straight ahead of him stood the crowd, and round it grew the nettles of rhetoric indigenous to the soil that nurtured the frontier stump. Let us cite an instance of the biff-bang style of speech in which Lincoln engaged. Six days prior to the adjournment of the Legislature, February 28, 1837,[12] Springfield was sanctioned as the permanent city of the State Capital, largely due to Lincoln's tact and diplomacy. A special session of the Legislature, however, was called to meet on July 10, 1837, to consider problems bearing on the State Bank and on internal improvements. That session provided the Vandalia die-hards with the pretext for reopening the fight on the Capital subject. William Lee D. Ewing, whom Lincoln had met in Macon county in the summer of 1830, a rugged debater of rough-shod proclivities, had been sent to that session of the Legislature to lead the attack on Springfield. Midway in the proceedings the fireworks began to crack, and recriminations passed between Ewing and Lincoln. The former declared with the sangfroid of the seasoned and sophisticated politician that the arrogance of Springfield—its presumption in claiming the seat of government—was not to be endured; that the law had been passed by chicanery and trickery; that the

[12] Beveridge, I, 205.

Springfield delegation had sold out to the internal improvements men, and had promised their support to every measure that would gain them a vote to the law moving the seat of government.[13]

Unaware at the time that crafty politicians hold no personal hate for one another, Lincoln leaped to his feet in high dudgeon, his head bobbing excitedly, his long arms extended, his words thick and hot. Sweetly Ewing retorted, "Gentlemen, have you no other champion than this coarse vulgar fellow to bring into the lists against me? Do you suppose that I will condescend to break a lance with your low and obscure colleague?"[14] Lincoln replied to his tormentor so brusquely that friends feared he would be drawn into a duel with him. But there was no meeting between the two at sunrise, no crossing of swords. Lincoln was merely being initiated into a technique of rhetoric in which he would eventually become a master.

The ancient Greeks termed that wrestling-like species of speech agonistic. Thomas Carlyle fulminated against the manner of it in his essay, "The Stump Speaker." Orators of all ages and countries, from Demosthenes to Huey Long, have appreciated the efficacy of the method as a weapon of persuasion in popular discourse. The satire Lincoln flung at Lewis Cass, in 1848; the jeremiad he let fall at the feet of the Springfield Scott Club, in 1852; the raillery slithering his debates with Douglas, even, in 1858, all manifested that style of eloquence in epic grandeur. Let us note how circumstance combined with Lincoln's own aptitudes to impel Lincoln to stoop to and to excel in that mode of argument.

The event at Pappsville, in the summer of 1832, will serve our purpose. Hilarity bespeaking the manners of the society that stormed the hustings prevailed at Pappsville, historically important because it was there that Lincoln ventured his maiden remarks as a candidate for public office. The New Salem claque was present in fighting fettle, contributing the might of leathern lungs to Lincoln's candidacy; and when opposing factions took up the challenge, the inevitable brawl developed. Lincoln had just begun to speak when Rowan Herndon, a disciple from New Salem, afire with loyalty to Lincoln, was set upon by several of the opposition; leaping to the ground, Lincoln

[13] Usher F. Linder, *Reminiscences of the Early Bench and Bar of Illinois* (Second Edition, Chicago, 1879), 62.

[14] Linder, 62.

made his way to the scene of combat and assisted in disentangling the disputants. Remounting the stand, he said:

> Gentlemen and Fellow-Citizens, I presume you all know who I am. I am humble Abraham Lincoln. I have been solicited by many friends to become a candidate for the Legislature. My politics are short and sweet, like the old woman's dance. I am in favor of a national bank. I am in favor of the internal-improvement system and a high protective tariff. These are my sentiments and political principles. If elected, I shall be thankful; if not, it will be all the same.[14a]

"He wore," recalled an eye-witness, Mr. A. Y. Ellis, "a mixed jeans coat, claw-hammer style, short in the sleeves, and bob-tail—in fact, it was so short in the tail he could not sit on it—flax and tow linen pantaloons, and a straw hat. . . . He then wore pot-metal boots."[15] Thereon hangs a clue; for politics were personal on the frontier or they were nothing. The color of a candidate's hair, the size of his nose, the cut of his coat, all had a facility for insinuating themselves into the discussion. It was a custom among rustic playfellows, where pugnacity was held as a beautitude and only gentility was considered *verboten*. Half a glance at Lincoln led opponents to pin the badge of uncouthness on him. The awkwardness of his movements, the disordered clothes, the rumpled hair, and a figure suggestive of Ichabod Crane in the fury of retreat, further provoked the truculent to the attack. To some unnamed rival who had attacked him scornfully, Lincoln retorted:

> Fellow-citizens, I have been told that some of my opponents have said that it was a disgrace to the county of Sangamon to have such a looking man as I am stuck up for the Legislature. Now, I thought this was a free country: that is the reason I address you to-day. Had I have known to the contrary, I should not have consented to run; but I will say one thing, let the shoe pinch where it may: when I have been a candidate before you some five or six times, and have been beaten every time, I will consider it a disgrace, and will be sure never to try it again; but I am bound to beat that man if I am beat myself. Mark that.[16]

When Lincoln felt the sting lodged in that retort, his initiation into the Guild of Politicians became an accomplished fact. There was but one course open to him: *To survive in frontier politics he must cultivate a combative style of argument.* That was the lesson taught

[14a] Lamon, 125-26.
[15] Lamon, 127.
[16] Lamon, 127.

him by the hustings of 1832. He possessed skills equal to the need, as "Bluenose Crawford" of Pigeon Creek memories would have attested—a gift of satire adapted to the purging effect of comedy, a quality of voice capable of affecting a falsetto shrillness, a sheaf of anecdotes tipped with mud, as well as a knack of distorting his attenuated limbs into mirth-provoking ungainliness of posture. For twenty years following the campaign of 1832 Lincoln regaled his opponents with an oratory of mimicry, and satire, and pantomime, whenever expediency called for such tactics. Opponents were quick to repay him in coin of his own mintage, until he had mastered a technique of forensics befitting the needs of the partisan. That development constituted the first ramification of his style as a public speaker.

Lincoln first won a seat in the General Assembly in 1834. The electioneering of that campaign virtually amounted to a house-to-house canvass: and he owed his success of election largely to the gold of his personal charm. But on seeking re-election to the Legislature, in 1836, for the first time he had occasion to tune his pitch to the cacaphony of the stump. The tempo of the hustings may be inferred from a statement made by James Gourly, "I heard Lincoln make a speech in Mechanicsburg, Sangamon County, in 1836. John Neal had a fight at the time: the roughs got on him, and Lincoln jumped in and saw fair play."[17] It was in that campaign that the celebrated "Long Nine" rode horseback from grove and from market to market seeking an audience and meeting all comers in discussion, with the choice of weapons left to the discretion of the opposition.

One event of that same campaign demonstrated in particular how completely Lincoln had captured the rhythm of the rabble-rousers by 1836. The incident developed round George Farquar, who had set local tongues in motion by *bolting* the Whig party for the Jacksonian, to be appointed forthwith Register of the Land Office. Needless to state, apostasy of that sort galled the Whigs to the quick. But he also had outraged small town smugness by installing a set of lightning rods, the first to be erected in Springfield, on a dwelling he had just built for himself. The stage was set for some wit to amplify the mutterings for his own chorus. The situation crystallized at a rally in the courthouse. Replying to Lincoln, Farquar answered him fairly enough, argument for argument; but throughout his entire dis-

[17] Lamon, 187.

course he assumed a patronizing air of superiority, intimating that Lincoln was cocky, and must be *taken down* from his high horse. When Farquar was done speaking, Lincoln again took the stand and replied to him. His concluding remarks were in point:

> "It is for you, not for me," he explained, turning to the crowd, "to say whether I am up or down. The gentleman has alluded to my being a young man: I am older in years than I am in the tricks and trades of politicians. I desire to live, and I desire place and distinction as a politician; but I would rather die now, than, like the gentleman, live to see the day that I would have to erect a lightning-rod to protect a guilty conscience from an offended God.[18]

The Whigs, realizing that here was a young debater who could exchange epithet for epithet with the most vindictive of his adversaries on even terms, enjoyed that revelation of brassy wit to the full. The episode marked a definite upturn in Lincoln's political fortunes: skill in forensics was attracting the figure of *The Tall Sycamore of the Sangamon* to the public. It was an important development. The grace of his speech in conversation had made him popular in field and cabin; the vitality of his speech in public would make him popular in meeting hall and village square.

At the final rally in the campaign of 1836, also held at Springfield, Lincoln again found himself beset by a war of words, but this time he was the peace-maker. The courthouse fairly trembled when Ninian Edwards, one of the "Long Nine," leaped upon a table and at the top of his voice declared unequivocally that Dr. Early had just accused him falsely. Those were fighting words, and for a moment a duel between the protagonists appeared inevitable. But cooler heads intervened, among them Lincoln, who managed the disagreement so tactfully that order on the floor was restored. "Then, for the first time," remarked an eye-witness, referring to Lincoln, "developed by the excitement of the occasion, he spoke in that tenor intonation of voice that ultimately settled down into that clear, shrill monotonous style of speaking that enabled his audience, however large, to hear distinctly the lowest sound of his voice."[19] The comment is important, being one of the earliest recorded opinions expressed on Lincoln's quality and pitch of voice.

The final leg of the journey Lincoln traveled between 1830-1837 took him from scenes like these to the floor of the Legislature in Van-

[18] Lamon, 189.

[19] Lamon, 188.

dalia, where he began his duties as a law-maker on December 1, 1834. He voted shrewdly enough on routine transactions in that session, observed much, and said little; and, when adjournment was reached, February 13, 1835, he had ventured no speech designed to catch the ear of the House. He was but a raw recruit among the scarred veterans of a thousand stumps.

But the membership of the House, and the strong-armed lobby standing by, provided Lincoln with a forum in which to hear arguments conceived by keen minds and pronounced by sharp tongues. It was worth the time of any tyro to observe that company of wordsmen thrust and parry—to study their finesse of argument and their manner of delivery, to note their vigor of language, and from them to learn the strategy of deliberative debate.

That stripling who speaks with a bit of Irish brogue is James Shields, soldier of fortune. The dapper gentleman with the Chesterfieldian manners is Jesse K. Dubois. The campanilian figure, sitting close to Lincoln in the southeast corner of the dilapidated Hall, is Archibald Williams, reputed to be the ugly duckling of the assemblage. The paragon of dignity with the patrician countenance is Ninian Edwards, reported to hate democracy "as the devil is said to hate holy water." That suave courtier with the Adonis-like bearing is John T. Stuart, called by his opponents "Sly Jerry." The florid-faced member who plays the magpie is the Reverend John Hogan. That fighting Democrat is John A. McClernand. That raconteur de luxe is Orlando B. Ficklin, resolute and uncanny in politics. The professorial looking legislator with the flashing black eyes is John J. Hardin. That admixture of gravity and fun is former Governor John Reynolds, the "Old Ranger." The juvenile with the large head crowned with a crop of brown hair is Stephen A. Douglas, already dubbed, and with good cause, "the Little Giant." Slightly more than five feet tall, frail of frame and pale of face, and with a fighter's chin, he wages merry combat with any who stands in his way.[20]

Lincoln's activity on the floor of the House actually began in the special session of his first term, met on December 7, 1835. But it was not until he returned to Vandalia to serve his second term in the Legislature, December 5, 1836, that he asserted himself to the full. The hustings of 1836, to which we have referred, had done

[20] Linder characterizes these men in his *Reminiscences*.

something to him. The daring of the Sangamon delegation to move the State Capital from Vandalia to Springfield had galvanized his courage. He threw himself into that venture with all his new-found energy, appreciating that popularity is a passion that cools with the morrow, and that the politician who fails to please his constitutents must yield place to another. He did much to bring the issue through to a successful conclusion, but what he did went on in the privacy of conference. He shunned the floor religiously despite the fiery issues that swept the Hall. But why risk the fate of Springfield on the breath of words? The policy of silence he maintained at that time indicates how sharply he recognized speech as a utility of social implications.

But he bounded to his feet when Usher F. Linder resolved to investigate the Bank of Illinois. That resolution struck too close home to be ignored, because Springfield had a State Bank. Loyal to the constituents who had been loyal to him at the polls, he rose to their defense in the only set speech of his career at Vandalia. He condemned the whole tribe of politicians, including himself, but particularly the rascals who would investigate the activity of an organization that included his own followers in Springfield. A gratitude no less than that becomes any politician, particularly when that politician dreams visions of eminence.

The inclusion of phrases like *lest, in toto,* and *it is he,* as well as the incorporation of long and involved sentences, not only indicate much writing and rewriting of the text, and suggest the influence of the literate of Vandalia legislative circles on Lincoln, but elements like these marked a sharp drift from the simple and plain style of composition characterizing his broadside of March 9, 1832, and a motion toward the pomp that purpled his declamation at Springfield, a year later. The freshman legislator was growing sophomoric in the exuberance of his diction.

Because the speech was a gesture of good will conceived to impress the folk back home, Lincoln had it printed in the *Vandalia Free Press.* Later it was reprinted in the *Sangamo Journal* of Springfield. The partisan editor of the *Journal* chortled gleefully:

> "Mr. Lincoln's remarks on Mr. Linder's Bank resolution, in the paper, are quite to the point. Our friend carries the true Kentucky rifle, and when he fires seldom fails of sending the shot home."

That comment, printed in the columns of the *Sangamo Journal* for January 28, 1837, stands first, chronologically, among the reams of

criticism printed on Lincoln's art of speech; and it was a note of praise sung for the invective of his style.

Let us review, in brief, the milestones marking the path Lincoln trod between 1830-1837. Clad in the garments of the plowman, symbolic of the soil that had nurtured the years of his youth, he entered Illinois in the flush of manhood, March, 1830, with eyes cast on the mirage of distinction: daring to be someone, he dared to do things. Social-minded by training, he gravitated to the crowd. Flourishing the wand of speech, he played the jester in homespun, cracked the whip of satire, and philosophized on affairs of government. In a melting pot of action the traits of his character fused into a personality of charm.

The crowd, in turn, attracted by that personality, gravitated to Lincoln and cradled his ambition; gently, Lincoln found himself led into the world of politics—and later into the profession of law. Awakened by the snarling eloquence of the hustings, he stormed the stump; and the aptness of his talents for the rigors of a style of rhetoric that demanded an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth, as revealed in the Farquar episode, increased his prestige among the two-fisted men of the plains. Elected to the General Assembly, he capitalized on the mania for internal improvements rampant round him; and joining the advantage of that ground to the leverage of his own astuteness in legislative dealing, he assisted in elevating Springfield to the dignity of State Capital; by the same token he elevated his own standing among his clientele.

The story of the speaker, Lincoln, between 1830-1837, is the story of his association with men; for speech, as has been stated, is personality in action. It concerns a plowman who, under the strain of circumstance, the stress of accident, and the force of his own traits of character, methodically, and step by step, pressed his way through a tangle of trivia into the broad highway that led him to higher ground. A stern logic united with a whimsical fate to round the course of his destiny.

Lincoln, on a day in April, 1837, lured by the rainbow of opportunity that seemed to flame over Springfield, and wearing the orchid that Springfield had pinned on him for services rendered in making her city square the site of the State Capitol, jolted down the rugged embankment of New Salem astride a horse, to continue a career closely knit with the fabric of speech.

# THE ORATORY OF THE DAKOTA INDIANS

LOIS E. BUSWELL

Note: This article is based on the master's thesis prepared by the writer under the direction of Dr. Gladys Borchers of the University of Wisconsin.

CHIEF Henry Standing Bear, present day leader of the Sioux nation, when asked to define oratory from the standpoint of his people, said:

> We call it oratory, when my people listen and believe.[1]

If one takes the trouble to study the leaders of the Sioux, there is everywhere evidence that they held their positions in the tribe by their oratorical powers, as well as by their ability in war. From the lips and pens of white men comes testimony proving that the Indian was an effective and fluent speaker, able to hold and sway the beliefs and opinions of the members of his own race and of others as well.

Mr. Jesse Williamson, who watched Dakota Territory grow into states, and who knew Indian leaders intimately and well writes:

> First, oratory was one of the arts most highly prized by the Indians. Many chiefs held their positions by virtue of their oratorical ability, though something more than oratory was doubtless required.
>
> Second, the average Indian, man or woman, was far better able to express his or her sentiments in public than the average white man or woman. I remember a woman, old Mrs. Kettle, (50 years ago) whose husband had been chief of the Yanktons. This woman delivered long and eloquent addresses at some of the Councils. Almost all Indian men and women of middle age can get up and deliver an appropriate speech at any formal occasion.
>
> Third, dignity and formality generally marked the Indian's delivery. All the fine shades of courtesy, flattery, and urbanity, if we may use the word, come easily and naturally, and were seldom omitted. There were exceptions, however. Under stress of deep feeling the Indian sometimes becomes fiery, cutting, vindictive in his speech.
>
> Fourth, an Indian's gestures are generally natural, appropriate, graceful and free. I hardly need to qualify this in any particular.[2]

Mr. John Stanage, the first white child to be born in Dakota Territory, a man thoroughly versed in Indian ways, was even more lavish than Mr. Williamson in his praise of the Indian orator.

[1] Interview with Henry Standing Bear.

[2] Letter from Jesse P. Williamson, July 8, 1930, to Lois Buswell.

I think an Indian orator from any of our Dakota tribes is more impressive in a personal way than many of your white men orators. They move generally with a slow and steady step to the place where they speak from. Their features, tanned by the heat of summer and the cold of winter, do not show change of color as they speak. They generally speak in a slow and steady voice that the listener likes to hear.[3]

West of the Missouri River lies a small town named Lemmon, so-called for one of its most respected and venerated pioneers, Mr. G. E. Lemmon. Cattleman, rancher, he helped to transform the wild west river territory into a civilized community. He knew the Indians personally, attended their councils. Consequently his comments on the "red orator" and his audience are most pertinent.

As for Indian oratory, they are natural born orators as a rule, and they in a manner having no nerves, can face an audience unflinchingly and unabashed. Their language rolls out with a smooth, oily flow which does not tax their lung power, their utterances are crude but to the point. For example, in describing their being forced from their Old-Possessions and Nomadic lives, they describe how heart breaking it is to leave behind the Bones of their Fathers and be compelled to indulge in pursuits of Husbandry, for which they are not fitted, and they never fail to introduce the facts that not a single treaty made with them has been fulfilled by the Great White-Father, in Washington (which of course is true).

Their voices, casting forth their words in the oily, smooth flow, carry much farther in the open than the average English-Speaking Tongue; and especially the Indian Audiences are good listeners and never antagonize the Speaker, unless displeased, when they do not hesitate to hiss them down, or politely walk off leaving them no audience.[4]

The comments of these men who knew the Indian orator so well give us a definite idea of Indian delivery.

The speeches themselves are more difficult to secure. They have been handed down, in the native tongue, from generation to generation as the permanent records of tribal affairs. Some have been translated by white men who kept stenographic accounts at treaty Councils. The Indian translation is always far more colorful and accurate, but these must be secured verbally, for they have never been written. An added advantage in going to the Indians themselves for the speeches is that many of the finest were delivered in strictly Indian Councils, and could be obtained in no other way.

White men and Indians are fairly well agreed on the orators of

[3] Letter from John Stanage, Nov. 15, 1933, to Lois Buswell.

[4] Letter written by G. E. Lemmon, March 4, 1934, to Lois Buswell.

first rank. At the head of the list are Chief John Grass, and Chief Running Antelope. Grass has been termed by white men "the Indian Daniel Webster," so clear, so logical, and so excellent are his thought and manner of presentation. Sitting Bull, another orator of high rank, who usually appeared in council with Grass, was known as "the William Jennings Bryan." He was the silver-tongued propagandist, and the two together, supplemented by Running Antelope and Chief Gall, made a formidable quartette.

Doane Robinson, a venerable old pioneer, and for years head of the South Dakota Historical Society, tells an interesting story of these four in Council:

> In 1888 the Indian Commission got the signature of all the Lower Bands of Indians, for the Fort Yates Treaty. They failed to get the Upper Indians largely because of men like Grass and Gall.
>
> In 1889 a new group was appointed to get the Indians to sign. General William Warner of Missouri was to make a dignified statement of the situation; Charles Foster of Ohio was to jolly them along; then if failure seemed imminent, General Crook was to use the iron hand. The Indian representatives were Gall, John Grass, Sitting Bull, and Running Antelope.
>
> A bower was built, the white commissioners were at one end, the Indians at the other facing them. Colonel Foster talked for three-quarters of an hour, the most foolish flattery I have ever heard. When he finished, Louis Primo, the French journalist, asked for the Indians' reply. There was a long dignified silence, so long it became oppressive. Primo again asked for a reply. Then John Grass arose, a perfect replica of Daniel Webster, glorious in his beautiful physique; he threw back his head and said, 'Thus far we have heard nothing to which we can reply!' He sat down. General Crook finally read the treaty, and before he was one-fourth through, Grass sprang to his feet. He was ready to talk now. It was apparent that each Indian family was to get a quarter section of land. Grass made the following speech:
>
> "In thirty years you have not been able to feed your mess over at the fort. What is an Indian to do who knows little of agriculture and supporting his family on a little section of land. (Mr. Robinson said he would never forget the tone of his voice, and the way he used his hands to squeeze down 'the little.') If the Indian is to live by agriculture he must have much land." Here he threw wide his arms as a gesture, before taking his place. (Before the council was over, the Indians got much land.)[5]

Among the orators of high rank we find blunt, stubborn Chief Red Cloud; diplomatic and subtle old Chief Spotted Tail; shrewd, unscrupulous and clever Little Crow III; the Sioux wag and wit,

[5] Interview with Doane Robinson, July 16, 1931, State Capitol, Pierre, South Dakota.

Red Dog; conscientious and powerful Struck-by-the-Ree, or "Old Strike," as he was affectionately called.

As one reads the speeches of these old chiefs there are three or four things which seem to stand out as characteristic of all Indian oratory. First of all is the utter simplicity, the naïve, picturesque language, the clear but unadorned thought of men who lived close to nature. Second, and closely allied with the first point, is the profuse use of the figure of speech. Here was an orator unschooled in the learning of books, talking to his simple tribesmen. He drew on that which they all knew best—nature, to make his comparisons and explain his thought. This speech of Spotted Tail's serves to illustrate both of these points, and at the same time provides an excellent example of Indian Oratory. This was delivered to his people as a warning before their attack on Fort Phil Kearney.

"Hay, hay, hay! Alac, Alac!" Thus speaks the old man, when he knows that his former vigor and freedom is gone from him forever. So we may exclaim today, Alas! There is a time appointed to all things. Think for a moment how many multitudes of the animal tribes we ourselves have destroyed. Look upon the snow that appears today, tomorrow it is water! Listen to the dirge of the dry leaves, that were green and vigorous but a few moons before. We are a part of this life and it seems that our time is come.

Yet note how the decay of one nation invigorates another. This strange white man—consider him, his gifts are manifold! His tireless brain, his busy hands do wonders for his race. Those things which we disperse he holds as treasures; yet he is so great and so flourishing that there must be some virtue and truth in his philosophy. I wish to say to you my friends: Be not moved alone by heated arguments and thoughts of revenge. Those are for the young. We are young no longer; let us think well, and give council as old men.[6]

Third, the Indian Orator made constant use of the personal pronoun. This can probably be accounted for when we remember that most of the time he was presenting his own ideas.

Fourth, the Indian speaker used short, terse sentences. He wasted few words, and went straight to his point. Indian audiences demanded this. The verbose speaker found little sympathy in them.

Fifth, the speeches are marked by utter sincerity. When these men spoke, they spoke because they believed in a cause. They spoke to make their people listen, and to get them to believe.

Of all the Indian orators, Sitting Bull's name is probably more familiar than any of the others. He was a clever speaker, and a

[6] Charles Eastman, *Indian Heroes and Great Chieftains*, 35.

constant menace to white plans. The old fellow was subtle, and by his strategic presentation was able to arouse his people to action. The speech which follows is an excellent example of his style of speaking and of Indian Oratory as well.

Behold, my friends, the spring is come; the earth has gladly received the embraces of the sun, and we shall soon see the results of their love! Every seed is awakened, and all animal life. It is through this mysterious power that we too have our being, and we therefore yield to our neighbors, even to our animal neighbors, the same right as ourselves to inhabit this vast land.

Yet hear me friends! We have now to deal with another people, small and feeble when our fore-fathers first met with them, but now great and overbearing. Strangely enough, they have a mind to till the soil, and the love of possession is a disease in them. These people have made many rules that the rich may break, but the poor may not! They have a religion in which the poor worship, but the rich will not! They even take tithes of the poor and weak to support the rich and those who rule. They claim this mother of ours, the Earth, for their own use, and fence their neighbors away from her, and deface her with buildings and their refuse. They compel her to produce out of season, and when sterile she is made to take medicine in order to produce again. All this is sacrilege.

This nation is like a spring freshet; it overruns its banks and destroys all who are in its path. We cannot dwell side by side. Only seven years ago we made a treaty by which we were assured that the buffalo country should be left to us forever. Now they threaten to take that from us also. My brothers, shall we submit? or shall we say to them: "First kill me, before you can take possession of my fatherland!"[7]

The Council days are over. The great bursts of oratory that characterize Sioux history in the nineteenth century have all but been forgotten. As one reads the testimony of white men regarding the effectiveness of these nomadic people as speakers, and as one reads these speeches utterly lacking in sophistry, but full of the freshness, the charm, and the vigor of the great outdoors, one cannot help but feel that the Indian has won for himself a very definite place in the field of oratory.

[7] Charles Eastman, *Indian Heroes and Great Chieftains*, 119.

# A STUDY OF STUTTERERS' STUTTERING AND NON-STUTTERING EXPERIENCES ON THE BASIS OF PLEASANTNESS AND UNPLEASANTNESS[1]

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THIS study is concerned with one question: Are the stuttering experiences of stutterers more pleasant or more unpleasant than their non-stuttering experiences? In conjunction with this question is another of some interest: Will stutterers tend to report stuttering experiences as the most pleasant or the most unpleasant experiences of their lives when they are not specifically asked to do so?

The method employed was relatively simple. The stutterers were given a questionnaire (Form $A_1$) on which they were asked to write down the four following experiences:

1. The most unpleasant experience they had ever had.
2. The most pleasant experience they had ever had.
3. The most unpleasant experience they had had in the last 24 hours.
4. The most pleasant experience they had had in the last 24 hours.

Under each heading there were two eleven-point rating scales, a sample of which is shown below. 1 was the most P they could imagine:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11
P I U

11 was the most U they could imagine. Each stutterer was instructed to rate each experience on the first of these scales as it was felt at the time it was originally experienced, and to rate it on the second scale as it was felt at the time of rating.

One week later the group was given another copy of the same questionnaire (Form $A_2$) and was asked to report the same experiences as before and to rate them again.

One month later the third questionnaire (Form B) was given them, with instructions as follows:

1. Write down and rate the most pleasant speaking experience ever had.
2. Write down and rate the most unpleasant speaking experience ever had.
3. Rate (on an eleven-point scale) attitude toward speaking situations.

[1] From the Speech Clinic; Professor Lee Edward Travis, Director.

To remove suspicion that this was a speech clinic problem, the first questionnaires were handled by a person not affiliated with the clinic.

The subjects were twenty-eight stutterers from the Speech Clinic of the University of Iowa. There were three females and twenty-five males, ranging in age from 29 to 17, with an average of 22.15 years. Seven of these cases took only Form $A_1$, and of the remaining twenty-one, one did not take Form B.

*Results:*

The criterion set up for the scoring of responses was taken as a *specific reference to stuttering.* This held for all forms. Situations which were of a dubious nature were thrown out of the raw scoring data.

(a) A compilation of the answers taken from Form $A_1$, with 28 subjects, and 112 possible situations to be rated, showed that 19 situations (17%) referred directly to stuttering. These 19 experiences were confined to twelve subjects (43% of the group).

(b) On the recall test, Form $A_2$, 21 subjects were available. Two subjects who had reported 3 stuttering experiences were absent. Of the remaining cases, 10 recalled their stuttering situations; these 10 accounted for 15 out of 16 previously recorded situations. The recall of stuttering experiences was thus 94%, while the recall of non-stuttering experiences was 72% (or 44 out of a possible 61 experiences reported on Form A1).

There are 97 chances in 100 that there is a true difference between these percentages of recall of stuttering and non-stuttering situations. It must be kept in mind, however, that this conclusion is based on a small number of cases.[2]

(c) The responses taken from Form B, *referring directly to speaking situations,* and with only 14 subjects, showed that 88% of the stuttering experiences reported on Forms $A_1$ and $A_2$ were recalled. Two of the most P of life's experiences which had referred

[2] $\sigma_P = \sqrt{\sigma^2_{P_1} + \sigma^2_{P_2}} = .1139$, where $\sigma_p = \sqrt{\frac{pq}{n}}$

Actual percentage difference = .2162

$\frac{\text{P diff.}}{\sigma \text{P diff.}} = 1.90$

G. W. Yule, *An Introduction to the Theory of Statistics,* (1924), 269

H. E. Garrett, *Statistics in Psychology and Education,* (1926), 134.

to stuttering were forgotten. One of these cases reported: "I never had any!"

Table I shows the average of the averages of all situations on Forms $A_1$ and $A_2$, comparing stuttering and non-stuttering experiences.

TABLE I

| | Form $A_1$ and $A_2$* | | | | Form B | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | As Experienced | | As Recalled | | As Experienced | As Recalled |
| | Non-Stuttering | Stuttering | Non-Stuttering | Stuttering | All Speech | All Speech |
| Old U | 10.1 | 10.05 | 7.8 | 7.4 | 9.9 | 7.2 |
| Old P | 2.5 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 3.6 |
| New U | 8.7 | 8.4 | 6.7 | 6.2 | 7.6 | 5.8 |
| New P | 25 | | 3.7 | | 3.0 | 4.8 |

Table 1: The composite scale ratings of 28 stutterers of P and U experiences.

The average attitude of the group toward speaking situations was 6.1, with a range of 8-3. This average is remarkably near indifference.

*Discussion and Conclusions:*

From the results shown in Table I, it is at once obvious that there is no difference in the P and U of stuttering and non-stuttering experiences. Any observable differences are probably within the subjective error of the questionnaire method.

Nearly half of the cases, however, did report stuttering experiences when no demand for that was made. In such a highly selected group, it is difficult to attach much significance to this. All that can be said is that there is a tendency (and not an overwhelming one, either, considering the selected group) for stutterers to identify stuttering with life's most unpleasant experiences.

The entire lack of evidence that those stuttering experiences which were rated as the most U in life are more U than non-stuttering experiences is interesting in the light of Fletcher's[3] theory of social conflict and maladjustment, and his inference of psychopathic

(* Ratings here are an average of $A_1$ and $A_2$).

[3] J. M. Fletcher, *The Problem of Stuttering.*

traits. The average attitude of these stutterers toward speaking situations was apparently entirely normal (6.1, or indifferent).

The results also tend to verify Johnson's[4] opinion that stutterers generally do not present a psychopathic condition.

*Summary:*

(1) The stuttering experiences of stutterers have been indicated to be neither more nor less pleasant than their non-stuttering experiences.

(2) The speaking experiences of stutterers (not necessarily periods of stuttering) are likewise no more pleasant nor unpleasant than their non-speaking experiences.

(3) 43% of 28 cases studied rated stuttering experiences as either the most P or the most U. Out of 18 experiences referred, 50% were the most U of life, 33% the most U of the day, and 12% were the most P of life; none were the most P of the day.

(4) Stutterers recall stuttering experiences better than they do non-stuttering experiences. This difference in recall is indicated to be a true difference.

(5) Some light has been cast on Fletcher's theory of social conflict, corroborating Johnson's view.

# THE ROLE OF RHYTHM IN THE CORRECTION OF STAMMERING*

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STAMMERING, often called stuttering, has also been termed "broken rhythm." Webster's Dictionary defines rhythm as "the movement of uttered words as marked by the succession and alternation of long and short, accented and unaccented, syllables and by the position of pauses," and accent as "a special articulative effort giving prominence to one syllable of a word or a phrase over the adjacent syllables, and consisting in stress of voice *(stress accent)*, change of pitch *(pitch accent)*, increase of duration, or a combination of these

[4] W. Johnson, "The Influence of Stuttering on the Personality," *University of Iowa Publications*, (Iowa City, Ia.).

* Presented at the 1933 Convention of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH in New York City.

elements." Thus accented syllables are louder, of higher pitch, or longer than unaccented syllables. Mosher[1] maintains that "every word of more than one syllable requires that one syllable (occasionally two in words of four or more syllables) shall be accented."

Various forms of rhythmic speech, with or without time-beating, have been widely employed in the treatment of stammering since the year 1775. Most of these forms of rhythmic speech violate one or more of the principles above, however.

Recent experiments with modern apparatus have demonstrated again and again that in stammering there is marked disturbance of rhythm in verbal expression. Travis[2] found that various parts of the speech mechanism function out of temporal and directional phases with other parts, as in the cases of diametrical opposition of the action of the thorax and of the abdomen, marked protraction of both inspiration and expiration beyond that of normal speech, marked inequality in the extent of consecutive respiratory movements, interruptions of expiratory by short inspiratory movements and abnormally long duration in tones.

Although very accurate measurements have been made by Crandall[3] and others of the lengths of individual vowels and consonants in isolated words, the only such measurements I have found of complete sentences were made by Scripture.[4] He placed a gramophone disk record on a metal disk which was rotated at the rate of one revolution in about five hours by means of a speed-reducing mechanism from an electric motor. A specially constructed lever reproduced, highly magnified, on a revolving smoked drum operated by a belt from the same motor, the horizontal vibrations in the speech groove of the gramophone record.

As far as I know, the only measurement of vocalization during stammering which preceded the writer's investigation was made by Fletcher[5] at Clark University about 1913. He recorded vocalization with a Rousselot microphone, together with chest and abdominal pneu-

[1] Joseph A. Mosher, *The Production of Correct Speech Sounds*, (Boston, 1929), 177.

[2] Lee E. Travis, *Speech Pathology*, (1931), 110-33.

[3] Irving B. Crandall, "The Sounds of Speech," *The Bell System Technical Journal* IV (1925), 586-626.

[4] Edward W. Scripture, "Researches in Experimental Phonetics," in *Studies from the Yale Psychological Laboratory*, X (1902), 49-80.

[5] John M. Fletcher, "An Experimental Study of Stuttering," in *Amer. Journ. Psychol.*, XXV (1914), 217-18.

mograms, on smoked paper attached to a kymograph which revolved at the rate of from one-eighth to one-quarter of an inch per second—much too slowly for accurate measurements of vowel lengths. He found that 95.5% of the expiration interval of normal speakers was utilized in vocalization, whereas only 36.5% of the expiration interval of stutterers was thus utilized. No attempt was made to measure any syllable lengths.

The experimental work here reported was begun at the Harvard University Psychological Laboratory in October, 1919, and continued there until October, 1920, when the apparatus was moved to the Boston Stammerers' Institute and set up in condensed form in order to be more accessible to stammerers. The long task of measuring the records and compiling the data was not completed until the present year.

The intention has been to measure accurately both in normal speakers and in stammerers the comparative lengths of accented and unaccented vowels, and of pauses between syllables—also the proportional part of each expiration period utilized in vocalization.

It was first necessary to obtain a kymograph that would revolve rapidly enough to record as separate waves every vibration of the vocal cords on the highest notes of an alto's speaking voice—that is, to register at least five hundred waves per second. The Zimmermann kymograph proved satisfactory. This apparatus magnified these waves twenty times as much as Fletcher's had, but only one eleventh as much as Scripture's. Yet my records show what I wanted to study just as well as Scripture's, any my instrument recorded more in five seconds than Scripture's could in 24 hours.

My vocalization recorder itself consists of a glass resonance chamber shaped like a lamp chimney with the smaller end tapering down to an inside diameter of three-tenths of an inch. A soft rubber ring, having an inside diameter of one and three-fourths inches and manufactured to go over a telephone receiver, fits over the mouth end of the glass resonance chamber and keeps the vibrating column of air from escaping at the corners of the reader's mouth. This resonance chamber is connected through a short rubber tube with a tambour, 0.62 of an inch in inside diameter, having a membrane of gold-beater's skin which is held in place by a tightly fitting brass ring. A recording lever with long celluloid tip reproduces the vibrations of this membrane, magnified 37 times, on the smoked paper of the kymograph. The success of the whole mechanism depends largely upon

the diameter of this tambour; about ten tambours of varying diameters were tried, and the one just described was the only size that gave satisfactory results. Rubber is unsatisfactory as a diaphragm because it is stretched by the explosive consonants and lasts but a few minutes; gold-beater's skin lasts for weeks.

This vocalization recorder traces a wave every time the vocal cords vibrate. (See Figures 1 and 2.) The height of the wave depends upon the loudness of the voice. The length of a single wave depends upon the pitch of the voice. The length of a series of waves depends upon the time a given syllable is vocalized. The lengths of the straight lines between series of waves depend upon the lengths of the consonants and of the pauses between syllables.

As kymographs cannot be depended upon to rotate uniformly at high speeds, it is necessary to trace a time line just above or just below the vocalization line. A small electromagnet recorder connected in series with a tuning fork that interrupted the circuit fifty times every second was used with the Zimmerman kymograph. The beginning of a sentence was denoted by a break in the time line made by short circuiting the current around the tuning fork.

Later the same recording apparatus which was attached to the gold-beater's skin on the Marey tambour was cemented to the center of the disc of an unmagnetized telephone receiver of low resistance, and subjects spoke into a Globe microphone such as is used by the deaf. This device was more sanitary, but otherwise no more satisfactory than the glass vocalization recorder and tambour.

The subjects were seven bad stammerers, seven slight stammerers, and fifteen normal speakers. Of the normal speakers five were lecturers or ministers (all men), five were laymen, and five laywomen.

Two selections were read by all subjects. The first was the same Rip Winkle's Toast spoken by the famous American actor, Joseph Jefferson, which was measured by Scripture; this contained eighty words and will hereafter be referred to as the toast record. The second consisted of twelve disconnected sentences, so constructed as to include all vowel sounds between explosive consonants; this selection contained 87 words and will be called the sentence record. It was impossible to measure in the toast record syllables which were not separated by explosives, such as the words "to a."

As to results. The average length of vowels as made by normal speakers and by bad stammerers is recorded in Table I. Column 1 contains a list of the vowels in broad phonetic transcription which

were identified at least four times. Columns 4 and 8 contain the average lengths of these vowels in hundredths of a second as spoken by normal speakers and by stammerers respectively. Column 5 contains the mean variation for the vowel lengths listed in column 4, and column 9 contains the mean variations for the vowel lengths listed in column 8.

In general, long vowels and diphthongs were held by normal speakers half as long again as short vowels.

Bad stammerers made long vowels and diphthongs 39% longer than normal speakers and short vowels 57% longer. They held every vowel unduly.

TABLE I

AVERAGE LENGTH OF VOWELS IN HUNDREDTHS OF A SECOND

| Vowel | Normal Speakers | | | | Bad Stammerers | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. |
| | Accented | Unaccented | Mean | M. V. | Accented | Unaccented | Mean | M. V. |
| ɔ | 31 | (14) | 28 | 9 | 37 | (17) | 33 | 6 |
| aʊ | 28 | — | 27 | 7 | 35 | — | 33 | 13 |
| ɑ | 24 | — | 24 | 8 | 30 | — | 30 | 7 |
| ai | 23 | — | 22 | 6 | 29 | — | 28 | 9 |
| ei | 22 | — | 21 | 6 | 29 | — | 29 | 9 |
| oʊ | 24 | (10) | 21 | 8 | 33 | (16) | 29 | 10 |
| i | 20 | (14) | 18 | 5 | 26 | (26) | 26 | 10 |
| Average Long | 24 | 13 | 21 | 7 | 27 | 22 | 30 | 9 |
| ɛ | 19 | (14) | 17 | 5 | 28 | (18) | 26 | 8 |
| ɒ | 22 | 11 | 15 | 6 | 32 | 24 | 27 | 13 |
| ə | (25) | 9 | 12 | 5 | (30) | 18 | 20 | 8 |
| ɪ | 18 | 11 | 14 | 4 | 26 | 16 | 21 | 8 |
| ʌ | 15 | 13 | 14 | 5 | 23 | 20 | 21 | 6 |
| æ | 18 | 10 | 13 | 5 | 22 | 17 | 19 | 6 |
| ʊ | 18 | 10 | 13 | 6 | 30 | 21 | 26 | 9 |
| Average Short | 19 | 11 | 14 | 5 | 26 | 18 | 23 | 8 |
| AVERAGE | | 11 | | | | 18 | | |

Slight stammerers, on the other hand, averaged practically the same vowel lengths as normal speakers.

Although the mean variation for slight stammerers was practically identical with that for normal speakers, it averaged 50% greater for bad stammerers.

The percentage of the expiration period devoted to vocalization was greatest for the laymen, being 65.8% in the laymen, 57.0% in the public speakers, and 52.5% in the laywomen. It averaged 58.2%

with an m. v. of 7.2% for these fifteen normal speakers in the two selections, in contrast with 95.5% in Fletcher's experiment. That for the selection from Rip Van Winkle spoken by Jefferson in the Scripture record was 54.5%, approximately the average for my public speakers. This shows that my results are nearly as accurate as the laborious results of Scripture, and that Fletcher's kymograph revolved too slowly to record the short pauses between words and syllables.

The percentage of the expiration period devoted to vocalization was 38.4% (m. v. 10.3%) for my bad stammerers compared with 58.2% (m. v. 7.2%) for the normal speakers. Compare Figure 1 with Figure 2.

The alternate coarse wavy lines in Figures 1 and 2 were traced by an electromagnet connected in series with a tuning fork which made fifty vibrations per second; each complete wave represents one fiftieth of a second. The other lines in these Figures were traced by the vocalization recorder which makes one wavelet on this otherwise straight line for every vibration of the vocal cords while a vowel is being spoken, and traces a straight line during pauses between syllables unless its diaphragm becomes stretched, when explosive consonants like *t* trace a larger wave on which the wavelets become superimposed as in Figure 2.

Figure 1 is an eight-inch section cut from a typical continuous record some eight feet in length of a stammerer reading aloud and stammering badly. Figure 2 is a complete record of a normal speaker reading aloud short sentences; he began to read each sentence as near its number as possible, and finished it within the record. Note that the normal speaker made short pauses or no pauses between vowels, whereas the stammerer paused for some time between syllables.

A comparison of the three groups of normal speakers showed that the public speakers read 27% fewer words per minute than those read by the laymen and laywomen, that these lecturers paused 22% longer between words and syllables, and that they made the average syllable 20% longer.

The laywomen read 10% more words per minute than the laymen, paused 30% longer between these words and syllables, and made the average syllable 24% shorter.

Bad stammerers read on the average less than half as many words per second as normal speakers, the mean variation between subjects being 40% greater.

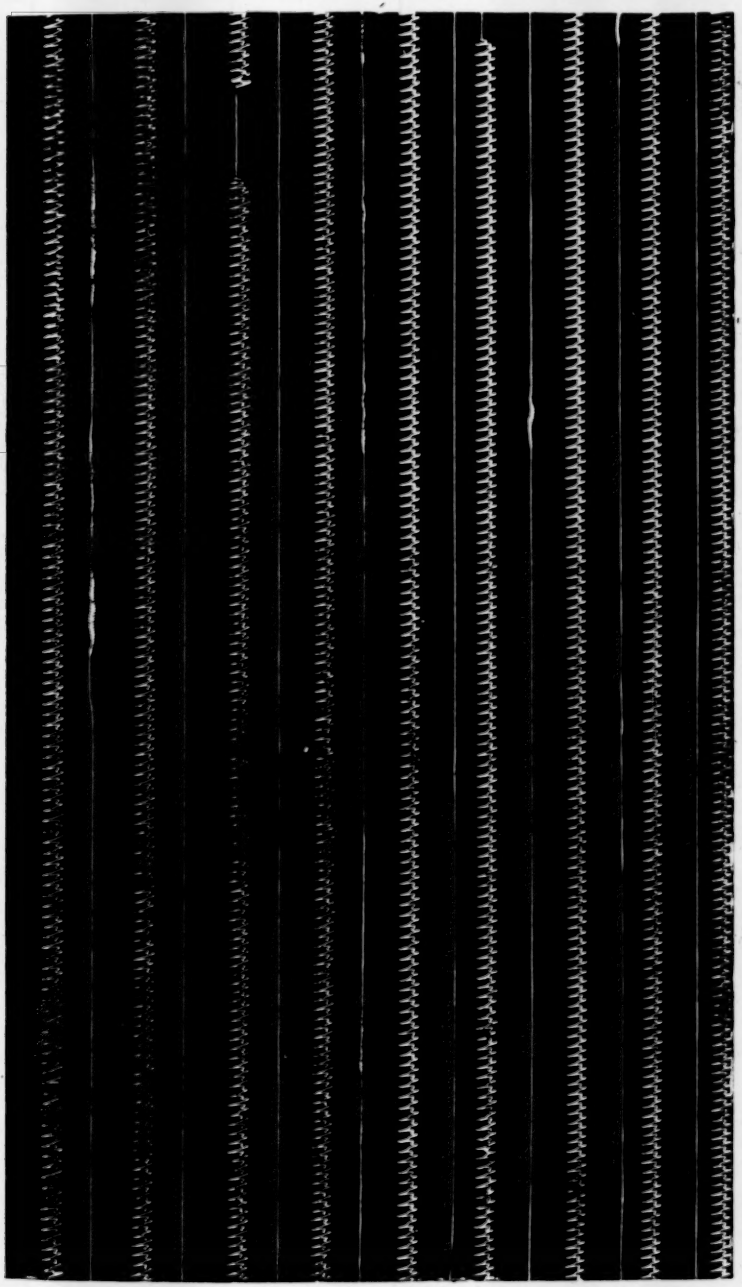

Fig. 1. Natural Size.

The average pause between words made by normal speakers was 0.12 of a second; bad stammerers made this 3.6 times as long, with the mean variation ten times as great.

Although there seemed to be no material differences in rhythm between normal speech and slight stammering, bad stammerers held their vowels unduly and could not pass quickly from one word or syllable to the next.

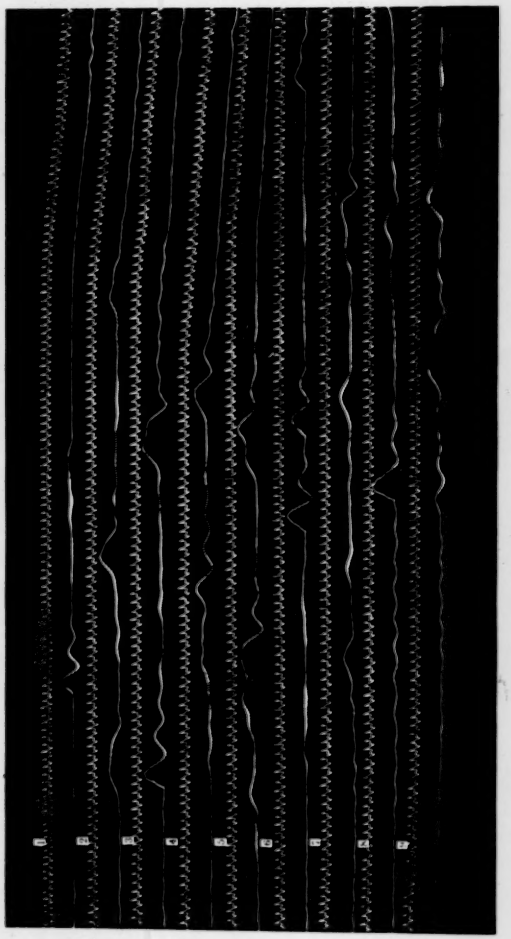

Fig. 2. Natural Size.

It will be interesting to compare the relative lengths of vowels as measured in my records with the rules given by Jones[6] in the chapter on "Length" in his *Outline of English Phonetics.*

Rule 1. "The vowels [i, ɑ, ɔ, u, ɜ] are as a rule longer than the other English vowels under similar circumstances, i.e., when surrounded by the same sounds, and pronounced with the same degree of stress." It is customary to designate these as the "long" vowels, and the remaining English vowels as the "short" vowels. The diphthongs are of the same length as the "long" vowels. The average length of the long vowels and diphthongs as spoken by my normal speakers was practically the same, 0.215 and 0.211 of a second respectively. Table I shows that they made their accented long vowels and diphthongs 25.5% longer (0.236 vs. 0.188 seconds) than their accented short vowels, and their unaccented long vowels and diphthongs 23.4% longer (0.132 vs. 0.107 seconds) than their unaccented short vowels. The bad stammerers, on the other hand, made their accented long vowels and diphthongs but 1% longer than their accented short vowels and their unaccented long vowels and diphthongs 20% longer. Slight stammerers made their accented short vowels 10% shorter than normal speakers (0.171 *vs.* 0.188 seconds).

Rule 2. "The long vowels (and diphthongs) are shorter when followed by a breathed consonant than when final or followed by a voiced consonant." In order to keep other variables constant, I limited this study to accented long vowels, and obtained the following measurements:

Normal speakers made final vowels in words which do not come at the end of a sentence 17.3% longer (0.229 *vs.* 0.195 seconds) than vowels followed by breathed consonants; bad stammerers made these 15% longer (0.306 *vs.* 0.266 seconds).

Normal speakers made the vowel in the final syllable of a sentence 26% longer (0.289 vs. 0.229 seconds) than final vowels in other words; bad stammerers made these 3.6% *shorter* (0.295 *vs.* 0.306 seconds).

Both normal speakers and bad stammerers made vowels which are followed by voiced consonants 26% longer (0.246 *vs.* 0.195 seconds and 0.336 *vs.* 0.266 seconds, respectively) than vowels followed by breathed consonants.

Rule 3. "Shortening of the 'long' vowel (or diphthong) also

[6] Daniel Jones, *An Outline of English Phonetics,* (Leipzig und Berlin, 1914), 104-6.

takes place before a liquid consonant followed in turn by a breathed consonant." But one word in my two selections happened to come under this heading, namely the second syllable of the word "acquaintance." This measured 0.16 of a second in the normal speakers and 0.27 of a second in the bad stammerers as compared with 0.239 and 0.324 of a second, respectively, in syllables ending in vowels or sonant consonants.

Rule 4. "The 'long' vowels (and diphthongs) are also shortened when immediately followed by another vowel." These were shortened 27% (0.167 *vs.* 0.239 seconds) in the normal speakers and but 4.3% (0.310 *vs.* 0.324 seconds) in the bad stammerers. This indicates that it is hard for stammerers to pass from one vowel to another.

Rule 5. "The 'long' vowels (and diphthongs) are shorter in unstressed syllables than in stressed syllables." Columns 2, 3, 6, and 7 of Table 1 show that the normal speakers made accented long vowels and diphthongs 79% longer (0.236 *vs.* 0.132 seconds) than unaccented ones, and accented short vowels 76% longer (0.188 *vs.* 0.107 seconds) than unaccented ones. Bad stammerers made these, respectively, but 21% and 44% longer (0.266 *vs.* 0.219 and 0.264 *vs.* 0.183 seconds); and slight stammerers made them respectively 70% and 64% longer (0.244 *vs.* 0.143 and 0.171 *vs.* 0.104 seconds). Long vowels were lengthened nearly four times as much when accented by normal speakers as when accented by bad stammerers (79% *vs.* 21%).

Rule 6. (Although not definitely given with the others, this rule was listed under "Effect of Rhythm on Length.") "When a syllable containing a long vowel or a diphthong is followed by unstressed syllables, that vowel or diphthong is shorter than if the syllable were final or followed by a stressed syllable." The normal speakers made the vowels in the final syllable of a sentence 31% longer (0.289 *vs.* 0.221 seconds) than the vowels in other syllables which were followed by unstressed syllables, and made vowels in syllables which were followed by a *stressed* syllable 10.4% longer (0.244 *vs.* 0.221 seconds) than corresponding vowels in syllables which were followed by *unstressed* syllables. Bad stammerers made these 3.3% shorter and 24.6% longer, respectively. This indicates that bad stammerers do not prolong final syllables as unduly as other syllables, and that they find it more difficult to pass to accented syllables than to unaccented syllables.

There is also a tendency to shorten accented vowels, and to a lesser

extent unaccented vowels, before explosive consonants. In Scripture's "Toast Record" Jefferson shortened accented vowels before explosive consonants to 53% of the average length that he made them in other positions (from an average of 0.376 second in other positions to an average of 0.20 second before explosive consonants), and he shortened unaccented vowels to 68% of their average lengths in other positions (from 0.141 to 0.096 second). In the disconnected sentences the normal speakers shortened accented vowels before explosive consonants to 82% of their average lengths in other positions (from 0.225 second to 0.185 second), and stammerers shortened them to 85% of their average lengths in other positions (from 0.265 to 0.226 second).

Individual variations seem to bring out certain differences between stammering and normal speech much better than averages do, because some stammerers tend to clip their vowels and others to hold them unduly.

Normal speakers vary the lengths of accented vowels much more than stammerers do. Individual normal speakers held 79% more of their accented vowels at least 2.5 times as long as unaccented ones, as did individual stammerers (261 vs. 146).

Two slight stammerers clipped unaccented vowels to an average of 0.067 and 0.080 of a second, respectively. Two others dragged unaccented vowels an average of 0.261 and 0.232 of a second, respectively. The shortest and longest unaccented vowels averaged by any normal male were 0.101 and 0.156 of a second.

Has this research any practical application for the treatment of stammering? It shows that stammerers should learn to accent words by holding the vowels of their accented syllables rather than by forcing them or by abruptly raising the pitch. The temporary use of the monotone may be necessary to break up superfluous stress and over-inflection. The stammerer should first read poetry in which alternate syllables are accented, then try poetry in which every third syllable is accepted, then the Psalms in which the accent is more obvious than in prose, and finally prose. He should be careful not to make all accented vowels of equal length lest he read poetry singsong; he should make the lengths of syllables proportional to their importance in the sentence, and vary them considerably, as do normal speakers. Although he may need to lengthen accented short vowels before explosive consonants, it is usually better to shorten unaccented syllables than to lengthen accented ones. A wide variety of vowel

lengths makes it possible to join words smoothly together without slurring them if the stammerer is careful not to use more force in speaking than he would exert in writing.

## SUMMARY

1. Artificial rhythm such as time-beating and vowel dragging should not be used in the correction of stammering, because normal speakers do not drag their vowels or make all syllables of equal length.

2. Normal speakers make accented syllables at least 75% longer than unaccented syllables; the more important they consider a word in a sentence, the longer they hold its accented vowel. Stammerers, on the other hand, hold accented long vowels but 21% longer than unaccented ones, and accented short vowels but 44% longer. Bad stammerers tend to prolong unaccented vowels unduly because of their inability to pass quickly to the next word or syllable. They make accented syllables of more uniform length than normal speakers do.

3. Although normal speakers make long vowels and diphthongs 54% longer on the average than short vowels, they hold long vowels receiving equal stress with short vowels but 25% longer. Bad stammerers, on the other hand, make long vowels and diphthongs 37% longer than short ones, and hold accented long vowels and diphthongs but 1% longer than accented short vowels, and unaccented ones 20% longer. The names long and short vowels are confusing, therefore, because normal speakers make accented short vowels 42% longer than unaccented long vowels and diphthongs (0.188 vs. 0.132 seconds).

4. Normal speakers make the final vowel of a sentence 26% longer than other vowels; bad stammerers make this 3.6% shorter, because there is no word to pass to on that breath.

5. Both normal speakers and stammerers hold long vowels and diphthongs longer at the ends of words and before sonant consonants than before surd consonants. Normal speakers shorten long vowels and diphthongs 27% when these are immediately followed by another vowel; bad stammerers shorten these but 4%, indicating that it is difficult for them to pass promptly to the next vowel.

6. Normal speakers vocalize a much larger proportion of the time than bad stammerers, read more than twice as many words per second, and pause less than one-third as long between words and syllables.

7. Bad stammerers tend either to hold unduly the syllable before a difficult syllable or to pause before the difficult syllable.

8. Most stammerers should be trained to touch unaccented syllables very lightly and quickly without slurring; this natural rhythm tends to make words run more smoothly together, and to eliminate the abnormal pauses between syllables.

9. A few individual stammerers tend, on the other hand, to speak too rapidly and to clip many vowels; it is very difficult for them to prolong any vowel unduly. These individuals should be taught to make longer vowels, and to lengthen those accented short vowels which they are most likely to clip into inarticulateness.

# THE GENESIS OF THE ARTICULATORY MOVEMENTS OF SPEECH

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THE purpose of the investigation reported in this paper was to contribute to the establishment of the thesis, that the speech movements of the oral and pharyngeal structures are modifications of the movements of sucking, swallowing and chewing.[1] The specific forms of the muscle movements occurring in sucking, swallowing and chewing are described in this paper on the basis of pertinent investigations written on the subject by anatomists,[2] physiologists and pathologists. The evidence concerning the articulatory movements of speech was secured from direct observation, from laryngoscopic inspection, from X-ray photographs and from kymograph records.

The fundamental principle of this paper is that *all structures arise from previously existing structures, and that all processes arise from previously existing processes.* This is a fundamental law of evolution accepted by all biologists. The structures involved in speech are identical with those employed in the food-getting processes. Even the muscles of the lips, palate and jaws have developed embryologically from the cephalic end of the primitive gut. All the ontogenetic and phylogenetic evidence available indicates that the oral and pharyn-

[1] A brief resumé of the thesis submitted by the author to the faculty of the University of Michigan in June, 1932, as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. I herewith acknowledge my indebtedness to Professors C. L. Meader and J. H. Muyskens, under whose direction the thesis was prepared.

[2] I am indebted to Professor Leon Strong for helpful guidance in anatomical study.

geal structures used in speech movements were developed primarily in connection with the food-getting movements. Coincident with the increasing complexity of the structures, arose also an increase in functional complexity and specificity, attaining eventually the high degree of intricacy and exactness found in the articulatory movements of speech.

It should further be borne in mind that both the food-getting movements and the speech movements serve the same general purpose, namely, the advancement of the welfare of the organism through its integration with its environment, the former acting directly and the latter indirectly (that is, through other organisms), but both as tools in the strict sense of the word. Aside from the articulatory movements, no movements of the oral and pharyngeal structures are known to exist which cannot be shown to be either directly or indirectly concerned with providing food (including gaseous food, i.e., oxygen).

From the fact that the speech movements are of later origin than the direct food-getting movements, we are compelled logically to conclude that the former are modifications of the latter.

Aside from these general considerations, there is available much evidence of a more specific character in support of our thesis. This evidence is in part as follows:

1. Alimentary processes are largely automatic, but are subject to extensive voluntary control. Articulatory movements likewise, though voluntary, when fully established, become automatic.

2. The two processes resemble each other closely in detail. If we consider the individual consonant contacts in isolation, we find that the specific action of each muscle or muscle group in articulation bears a close resemblance to, or even identity with, individual movements of sucking, swallowing and chewing. Although the application of analysis to an organic series of contractions is arbitrary and artificial, since it disregards the integrated character of the total series thus analyzed, yet it has its value, since the exact character of the individual components of the series can be observed in both cases *in the form in which they occur in the series*, and their differences recorded.

a. The act of occlusion of the lips involving their compression against the teeth is also that by which the lips aid those acts of biting in which the front teeth are involved. The same can be said of the movements constituting the production of [p, b].

b. In the production of such a succession of movements as [pf] as in *hopeful,* there is, in addition to the movements noted above, a tension of the buccinator muscles compressing the cheeks against the premolars as in chewing. This, however, is not essential to the [f], but is an accessory, or perhaps even adventitious, movement attending it, being really an anticipated movement of the following vowel [u].

c. In the production of the [pθ, bð] the make (closure movement) of the [p] or [b] is followed by a tongue-tip movement which closely resembles the tongue-tip and tongue-blade movements of the suckling baby. The movements following the make of [p] or [b] in the combinations [pt, bd, bn] are food transportation movements along the palatal rugae.

d. In the fricatives and affricates [ps, bz, ptʃ, bdʒ], the lip action above described is attended by a slight rise and tension of the blade of the tongue of the same type as that employed in transporting the bolus of food toward the isthmus faucium preparatory to swallowing.

e. The movement of the lips (protruding and puckering) made at the same time is particularly noticeable in [ptʃ, bdʒ, pw], and is characteristic of sucking and osculation.

f. The movement [pj] (as in *leap year*) closely resembles the act which would carry the bolus of food still farther back toward the fauces.

g. Another close parallelism between chewing and swallowing movements and articulatory movements is found in [l, r], which may be either right or left unilateral [l, r]. Similarly we find right-sided and left-sided chewing, and right- and left-sided swallowing. This is shown by some 200 palatogram records of swallowing, chewing, and articulation of [l] and [r] made in the Laboratory of Phonetics of University of Michigan.

h. [k] and [g], particularly after the vowels [o, u], etc., make a contact with the back palate such as is made in swallowing. This movement, of course, is unaccompanied by the constriction of the anterior pillars, since the bolus is absent, being replaced by the outflowing stream of air. The movements of [k, g] represent therefore an abbreviation of a stage of the swallowing process.

Taken, then, in succession, this series of movements from lips to the root of the tongue constitutes a close parallel to the normal primitive processes of food-taking, namely, sucking and swallowing. The jaw movements which are of later phylogenetic origin, play only an accessory part in speech.

3. Overlapping. By *overlapping* is meant the partly or completely simultaneous performance of the contractions that are popularly regarded as constituting successive "sounds" or "letters." Structurally we may distinguish the following forms of overlapping:

(1) of different portions of the same organ;

(2) of different organs adjacent to each other;

(3) of different organs remote from each other.

Both the sucking and swallowing movements and speech movements are marked by overlapping of all three types. For example, the contraction of the lips which sweeps food into the mouth is still maintained while the processes of chewing and swallowing are going on. There we have a movement, or at least a tonic condition, of contraction maintained for a time after the end to be accomplished has been effected, and while a different function is occurring. In the articulation of speech, a similar overlapping continually occurs, although the wide-spread use of the alphabet and the emphasis laid on correct spelling often conceal this fact from the layman. But for this overlapping, speech movements would be much slower than they are, and their variations greatly reduced in extent. This "speeding up" of movements is clearly shown in kymograph records.

4. Continuousness of action. Although the modern written and printed page presents words to the eye in the form of separate detached units, this is not the case with the spoken sentence. In the spoken sentence, the movement does not cease ordinarily from the beginning until the end of the sentence. So in swallowing the process is continuous.

5. Energy of contraction. It requires no experimental evidence to demonstrate that the muscular contractions of the alimentary processes are considerably more energetic than those of articulate speech. This fact is due to the presence of resistent food in the former case, and to the consequent necessity of chewing, triturating, propelling and swallowing it. In these processes there is more work to do, whereas in speech there is either only the muscle tissue alone to set in motion, or a very slight positive air pressure to be overcome. This difference in work to be done makes the greater rapidity of contraction possible in articulate speech.

Accent in speech consists in variations in loudness, in pitch and (perhaps we may add) duration. All three forms of variation are produced by variation in energy of muscular contraction. An even rhythmicity (that is, regularity in the succession of energy outputs,

and periodicity in the wave of contraction), is characteristic of the stages of the swallowing processes. However, variation in energy of contraction does occur here as a result of the resistance to progress offered by the condition of the bolus. Thus accent in language has its archetype in swallowing. Here the difference between articulation and swallowing lies chiefly in the difference in stimulus.

6. The great majority of the consonants in the Indo-European languages are made with the lips and with the tip and the anterior part of the dorsum of the tongue. If a page of printed matter be taken and a count be made of the consonants actually used (counting each occurrence of each consonant), the ratio of tongue-tip movements to tongue-back movements will be greatly increased. Over 80 percent of the total number of consonants pronounced will be found to be made by the tip of the tongue and the lips. This also indicates that the bulk of the consonants must be regarded as developed from the movements of the tongue in sucking, chewing and trituration. The tip of the tongue, which is more exclusively muscular than the base, is developed by invasion of myomeric muscles in connection with the triturating activities, and so has acquired a much greater mobility than the base. Incidentally, of course, the tip of the tongue is exposed to a much wider range of variation in stimuli from environment than is the back of the tongue, and this fact contributes to the development of a high specificity of its neuromuscular structures and functions.

7. When we turn to the vowels, we find a diametrically different situation. Vowels are formed not by the tip, but mainly by the contraction of muscle fibers in the posterior portion of the dorsum and root of the tongue that rise up in the form of the crest or transverse ridge as in swallowing, the tip playing only an accessory part. In the vowels, as in swallowing, the posterior half of each lateral region of the tongue is slightly elevated above the line of the center as a natural result of the contraction of the styloglossus. This distribution of the extreme upward movements of the tongue in pronouncing the vowel again emphasizes the close resemblances between the vowel movements and swallowing. As G. Oscar Russell pointed out in his repudiation of the traditional theories concerning the vowel triangle, the old picture of the vowel triangle inculcates a decidedly erroneous idea of the character of the vowel movements. I have made a composite picture of Russell's X-ray figures and those of Gutzmann by superimposing the figures and drawing a curving line

along the median crest of the tongue as it appears in each figure, and have secured a composite figure such that all the crests will fall (with the exception of some of those representing [a], within a curved oval lying just below the back half of the hard palate and the palatine velum. We should thus speak of a vowel oval rather than of a vowel triangle. Even such a corrected picture is misleading, since it is only two-dimensional, whereas speech movements, far from being two-dimensional, are not even merely three-dimensional, involving as they do volume, but are four, five and even multi-dimensional, involving time (movement), intensity and other factors.

Along with these resemblances, there are certain divergencies which are fully discussed in the text of the thesis.

While the analysis of the contractile activities of the oro-pharyngeal musculature thus reveals the genesis of the speech movements, it should be added that an exhaustive investigation of the subject would involve a further study of the neurological aspects of the problem, and take us into the field of central and sympathetic nervous activity, glandular secretion and the influence of other systems of muscular processes over the speech movements. There can be no doubt that all such evidence would corroborate the thesis here defended.

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# SOME STUDIES OF ROCKY MOUNTAIN DIALECTS*

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WE ARE likely to think of the Rocky Mountain Basin and its surrounding states as one vast region of desert waste. Or cattle and sheep, a dead sea and some mining camps. Or a cowboy-group sitting around the camp-fire crooning some Hill-Billy melody while a distant coyote silhouettes his hungry flanks against a mellow moon. Or perhaps the deadly scorpion is waiting to strike an unsuspecting Gila monster!

The great outdoors of countless ages—where the saber-toothed tiger fought desperately with the armoured Brontosaurus. Dialect of man in such a land? Now mostly desert, with a few cities tucked

* Delivered at the New Orleans Convention, Dec. 28, 1934.

under protecting peaks? Or farms dotting some mountain valleys? Really, the problem of language and dialects is far more complicated in this vast inland empire than it is in the seemingly heterogeneous groups of continental Europe.

There is no certainty of the relative ages of the many peoples on the American Continent, i.e., aborigines whom the Spaniard first met. The European and the Asiatic kept histories of their doings in written and recorded languages. There is no true record of the Americas antedating the coming of the Dons, most of whom were more concerned in collecting wealth and killing Indians rather than in recording facts and preserving civilization. Today, the wanderers of Europe and Asia and the remnants of the Americas are found living side by side in the Great Basin reservations.

One need not know history to make an accurate record of a language or to contribute to the knowledge of existing dialects. Some of the best authorities agree that we may harm our results by working from any pre-conceived conclusion. But a survey for some working basis must be set up in order to procure comparative data and guide a systematic study. We may ask such pertinent questions as: (1) How far or how much has the American Indian influenced western civilization, and particularly its speech? (2) Has a caste system, such as has obtained in the South, resulted in the association of the American Indian and the white settler? (3) What nationalities have contributed most to permanent population and trend of government? (4) Are there any peculiar speech habits or forms found in the Great Basin not indigenous to other localities?

The U. S. census of population for 1930 gives the following figures for four basin states:

| | *Total* | *Whites* | *Indians* | *Mexican* | *Negro* | *Japanese* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Colorado .. | 1,035,791 | 961,117 | | 57,676 | 11,828 | |
| Idaho ..... | 445,032 | 437,562 | 3,638 | 11,278 | 668 | 1,421 |
| Nevada .... | 91,058 | 81,425 | 4,871 | 3,090 | 516 | |
| Utah ..... | 507,845 | 495,955 | 2,869 | 4,012 | 1,108 | 3,269 |

The distribution of the white race for Utah is:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| English ..... | 59,177 | 33.3% |
| Danish ..... | 24,895 | 14. |
| Swedish ..... | 15,878 | 8.9 |
| German ..... | 12,338 | 7. |

Out of the 495,955 whites, 452,183 are native born, 43,772 are foreign born.

These figures are tedious or interesting in the light of their inter-

pretation. In Utah, it is interesting to note that neither the Indian, the Mexican, the Japanese, nor the Negro has as much as 1% of the population.

Let us consider our four questions generally at first, and more definitely later.

Original place names are interesting data, but must be interpreted in the light of surrounding speech and customs. In Colorado it appears as if some invisible force had drawn a line across the state from east to northwest and had said: "Above and north of this line the English shall dominate; below this line the Spanish shall have sway." The upper district has place names like Hereford, Carr, Dixon, Wellington, Pierce, Eaton, Kersey, Gilcrest, Firestone, Hudson, Hoyt, Derby, Henderson, Englewood, Edgewater, Bloomfield, Westminster, Avon, Wolcott, Edwards, Drake, Windsor, Gill, Waverly, etc. Only a few names mar the solidarity of the old British pattern.

But as the mountains lessen in height and the plains spread out to the south and west, what of the place names? Where is the good Tory nomenclature? Evidently the Dons wandered here, herded their flocks or looked for the seven cities of Cibola. Here we have Rio Blanco, San Miguel, Dolores, Montezuma, La Plata, Durango, San Juan, Arboles, Archuleta, Pagosa, Ouray, Mesa, Colona, Arvada, Huerfano, Costella, Alamosa, Conejos, San Acacio, San Pablo, Mesita, Torres, Bon Carbo, Trinidad, Pueblo, Las Animas, La Junta, Baca, Yuma, Arroya, Arriba, Padroni, De Nova, Piedro, Los Piños, Buena Vista—to name only a few. True, we have such names as Tomichi, Cheyenne, Kiowa, Arikaree, Cimarron and Uncompahgre, but most of the Indians of Colorado lived a nomadic life and had but a flitting influence. The story of Colorado is written in English and Spanish, and natures of these respective districts reflect it in the words of the daily speech of today. Little has been done with this interesting study, but sufficient has been accomplished to predicate ample awards for the linguistic scholar who catches this frail thread before commerce and modern communication break the web.

The place names of Utah are interesting reflectors of its history. That the Indian has been present, there could be no doubt. Here we have Ute, Paiute, Wah Wah, Washakie, Wasatch, Uninta, Timpannogos, Oquirrh, Tabiona, Altonah, Parawan, Paragonah, Panguitch, Paunsagunt, Kaiparowitz, Tavaputs, Pioche, Piute, Kanab, Kanara, Goshute, Sanpuitch (San Pete), Kanosh, Tukuhalkivatz, Navajo, Koosharem, Takewanna, Kamas, Ibapah, Tooele, and Kaibab. The

Zion Canyon of today would hardly be recognized with its original Indian name, Mukuntuweap. And many such names have been forever lost, covered up by Anglo-Saxon forms in more easily manipulated (or, should we say, labiolated) sounds.

The story of the Mormon pioneers is fixed in the names of Utah places. In the Mormon search for a haven of religious freedom, both the Holy Bible and the book that purports to be the history of some of the Indian tribes in America, the Book of Mormon, supplied place names. We hear Goshen, Jerusalem, Jordan, Moab, Salem, Providence, Eden, Liberty, Bountiful, Harmony, Abraham, Freedom, Ephraim, Benjamin, Manti, Lehi, Lemhi, Moroni, Nebo, and Kolob. From the leaders of the group, we derive Joseph, Hyrum, Brigham, Heber.

The explorers and fur traders are honored in the place names Fremont, Bridger, Ogden, Smith, Provo, Escalante, Logan, Duchesne.

The Sons of the American Revolution of Utah have been informed that Utah stands among the first three states of the Union in percentage of population consisting of living descendants of those who represented our country in the fight for independence. This fact shows in place names. The manner of naming and the types of names used by the Yankee dominate throughout the Beehive state. Adamsville, Greenville, Shelley, Fielding, Smithfield, Fairview, Riverside, Howell, Trenton, Lewiston, Richmond, Quincey, Millville, Hyde Park, Newton, Menton, Kenilworth, Wellington, Columbia, Peerless, Centerville, Syracuse, Clearfield, Kaysville, Farmington, Woods Cross, Fruitland, Bluebell, Cedarview, Rochester, Huntington, Cannonville, Henrieville, Tropic, Ellsworth, Holmes, Thompson, Yale, Knightville, Delta, Sutherland, Hoytsville, Wales, Austin, Monroe, MacIntosh, Woodland, Carrington, and the like.

This Yankee heritage is one of the most interesting of the linguistic survivals. In some of the villages named above one can hear dialects that savor of Vermont, Connecticut, and Boston. The speech of many of the less frequented villages has remained almost uncontaminated, because of the unpopularity of the Mormon religion at the time of its inception and the resulting exodus of large groups to a western freedom. When Joseph Smith was assassinated, the city of Nauvoo, Illinois, had a greater population than Chicago. This population had been recruited chiefly from the New England states. The migration from Nauvoo to Missouri and from there to Utah was done in Community groups, co-mingling at morning and evening prayers.

This inter-association and inevitable social and geographical isolation, helped to fix the common speech over a long period of time. There is possibly a greater agreement in the usage of spoken English in the central portion of the Great Basin than in any other portion of the United States. The great proportion of the population being white and the very large percentage of that being native born, the speech forms have changed very slowly indeed, and the semantic changes have been correspondingly retarded.

A great factor in keeping the speech in a consistent mold has been the "Conferences" of the Mormon Church, held in Salt Lake City in the mammoth Tabernacle. These huge congregations were and are addressed by leaders of the church who have been predominantly Yankee in descent or from the British Isles. Their many meetings and councils, calling the various officers of the Church from the entire Basin land, have been a contributing factor in further keeping the common speech in a relatively slowly changing state of evolution. The fact that most of the foreign born wish to assume their part in the body politic quickens their common use of the English language. The proportion of the white population of the state subject to each group response is yet more than 50%, and in the outlying villages and rural districts the mass participation in all church and civic activities still predominates.

So much, then, for the reasons why many communities of the Rocky Mountain districts have remained linguistically constant over a period of years. And now to answer the specific questions previously raised.

1. How far or how much has the American Indian influenced western American speech? The answer is "almost *nil*, so far as the Great Basin is concerned." The remaining survivors of the original so-called Redskins have been herded together in reservations and only a few isolated individuals live elsewhere. In some instances, two or three tribes have been banded together to make a convenient group to whom to furnish overalls and occasional stipends. Lew Sarett's "Holes and Medals" is true of most American Indians and especially true of the western Indian. The vocabulary of most of the western tribes is very small; in case of the Paiutes, it is said to be around five hundred words. Pantomime and gesture language have been the chief means of communication. We find tribes no more than a hundred miles apart almost wholly unable to understand each other in speech, though very fluent with gesture. Such a word

as "pa" in Ibapa, Tonapa, Paiute, means *water* to the central Athabascans, but has no such meaning to the Hopi or Comanche. The tribes which drifted from the North and wrote their history on totem poles are quite different from our Utes who excelled rather in handing down their customs from father to son, from chief and medicine man to a selected brave. We can learn something from the totem pole, but the picture writings of the Green River Cliffs and Utah's natural bridges are as enigmatic for the most part as the meaning of meteors found in Wyoming fields. With the isolation of Indian groups and their complete inability to fathom the encroachment of the white man, the quiet redman became more silent, and blanket broodings became more real than desert tribal dances. The Indian vocabulary is dying. It has never affected the speech of the arrogant white brother. But so many dialects for so few people challenges the study and interest of our greatest linguists.

2. Has a caste system, such as has obtained in the South, resulted in the family association of the American Indian and the white settler? The instances where an Indian squaw has been called upon to rear a white family and act as nurse to children are almost unknown. The squaw-man is a reality and many honorable marriages have been consummated. But the Indians of the West are a proud race, and have made poor servants. They seek equality or isolation. Such Indian women as have been induced to work in homes have been conspicuously quiet. They have never been known as efficient cooks or capable nurses. Their pride has contributed to their reticence of speech.

3. What nationalities have contributed most to a permanent population and trend of government? The answer is found in charters of city government. Most of the first city charters of Utah, Idaho, Wyoming and Colorado specified "selectmen." "Vicars," "Pastors," "Ministers," and "Vestrymen" were the town's leading citizens. Mayors were universal. Bailiffs and sheriffs were interspersed. The "common" was different from the "park" and streets were laid in "squares"—now known as "blocks." "Stream" was commonly called a "race" and time has made a "crick" out of a "creek." It took a long time for a "tavern" to become a "saloon."

In some of the Utah towns we yet hear of a "dropped" egg for a poached egg. And occasionally we hear a porch called a "stoop." "Pull a face" and "make a face" are often interchangeable; "kitty-corner," "catty-corner," and "cross-corner" may be found side by

side on the same street. You may warm your hands by the "herth" or by the "harth," and "dialect" is commonly called a "brogue." "Sneak" may be "flich," "snatch," "snouge" or "snick." Law is occasionally called "lawr" and vanilla is sometimes sold as "vanillar." Though we go to a village now chiefly Scandinavian, we find that the twelve founding families of Ephraim left an irrevocable Yankee background. The "or" has commonly become "ar" and a large area (where once the great lake Bonneville lapped its receding shores before it shrank to a dead sea) may be traced by this characteristic and tell-tale syllable. The older families of San Pete county and their intimate neighbors who went through Spanish Fork Canyon to Utah Lake are now bound by this band of speech. A prayer I once heard began, "Oh Lard, render mercy unto us." We may hear "overhalls," the speaker never knowing they are "overalls." And in a little mountain town tucked away where only an occasional hunter would visit, one need not be surprised to be invited to "dawnce"—the only "high tone" word in the town. One may fish with "angle worms," "earth worms," "bait worms," or "crawlers." One may be asked to "eat," to "dine," to "sup" or to "have a snack." And the myths of New England, along with their superstitions, too numerous to mention, may be heard in the child lore of the Rockies, even after in many of their original habitats they have long since been dead.

4. Are there any peculiar speech habits or forms found in the Great Basin not indigenous to any other American locality? So far as I have gone, I have found no such linguistic differences. Each and every difference from the common norm is easily traced to its original source. The cadence of San Pete county in Utah is a direct result of Scandinavian mixture. The mining towns, with their foreign population, lose their identity in the common norm within two or three generations. The necessity of all children going to school is a further deterrent to the breaking of a pattern of speech which sprang from Puritan surroundings and New England hills.

The insignificant Negro population has no influence; the Indian, cooped up in reservations, generally too proud to become a house servant, has lived his life apart; the few Mexicans work chiefly in mines and herd their sheep and cattle on the hills. And only there do we have their mark on the speech.

By their words ye shall judge them. By fragments of speech we may fathom the mystery of the aboriginal Americans, by words we trace the trek of the Yankee pioneer and find him perpetuating his

linguistic patterns in the peaceful valleys and on the verdant plains of the Great Basin.

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# DEBATE PROPOSITIONS AND CONTEXTS

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AS STATED in a variety of forms in existing texts, the primary object of a debate proposition is to focus the discussion upon a definite topic, to state precisely and clearly the subject in dispute.[1] "Only by means of the proposition can the exact point in controversy be determined";[2] it "clears the ground of discussion"[3] and holds "efforts to a single point."[4]

[1] Phrasing a proposition may "avoid writing about a term in disconnected statements which can prove nothing." G. P. Baker, *The Principles of Argumentation*, (Boston and London, 1895), 39. It may reveal that a speech or article of an opponent, "some self-assured person who is gaining credence from a credulous public, is but a set of statements about the terms of the subject, and is not at all an argument about a proposition." *Ibid.* It may prevent two men from discovering "either that they do not disagree or that what they wish to debate must be stated in a proposition different from either of those with which they started." *Ibid.* To the same effect: G. P. Baker and H. B. Huntington, *The Principles of Argumentation*, (New ed., Boston, 1925), 19; W. T. Foster, *Argumentation and Debating*, (Second rev. ed., 1932), 4; J. M. O'Neill, Craven Laycock, and R. L. Scales, *Argumentation and Debate*, (1917), 17; J. M. O'Neill and J. H. McBurney, *The Working Principles of Argument*, (1932), 14. It is "an effective method of exposing the weakness or sophistry of an opponent who is "begging the question," arguing "beside the point," or "evading the issue." Craven Laycock and R. L. Scales, *Argumentation and Debate*, (1905), 16. To the same general support of the text, see: R. M. Alden, *The Art of Debate*, (1900), 11; A. Craig Baird, *Public Discussion and Debate*, (Boston, 1928), 43; J. V. Denney, C. S. Duncan, and F. C. McKinney, *Argumentation and Debate*, (1910), 11; C. A. Fritz, *The Method of Argument*, (1931), 36; H. F. Graves and C. B. Spotts, *The Art of Argument*, (1927), 16, 17; R. K. Immel and Ruth H. Whipple, *Debating for High Schools*, (Boston, 1929), 20; Craven Laycock and A. Keith Spofford, *Manual of Argumentation*, (1910), 7; C. G. Miller, *Argumentation and Debate*, (1930), 15; G. K. Pattee, *Practical Argumentation*, (Rev. ed., 1915), 17; Frances M. Perry, *An Introductory Course in Argumentation*, (1906), 43, 44; W. C. Shaw, *The Art of Debate*, (1922), 9; E. D. Shurter, *The Science and Art of Effective Debating*, (1925), 10; W. O. Willhoft, *Modern Debate Practice*, (1929), 17; J. A. Winans and W. E. Utterback, *Argumentation*, (1930), 28.

[2] W. C. Shaw, *The Art of Debate*, (1922), 10.

[3] R. M. Alden, *The Art of Debate*, (1900), 10.

[4] E. J. MacEwan, *The Essentials of Argumentation*, (Boston, 1898), 27.

With this apparently simple objective to be achieved, it is astonishing that such an aggregation of rules could develop around the business of obtaining a suitable proposition for debate. An examination of the leading texts in the field reveals some twenty-eight cautions to be heeded in this matter. In general, these tests arrange themselves in two categories: (1) Those having to do with the *selection* of a subject, and (2) Those having to do with *phrasing* that subject into a resolution for debate. Merely to enumerate these various tests is surprisingly difficult, since many overlap, since the same rule is often stated in varying language with diverse illustrations making its identification not always certain, and since they are classified under sundry schemes by the authors.[5] Our present reflections are concerned only with the rules making up the second group,[6] of which the following is a fairly representative list:

[5] As an example, Professor Foster, in ruling that a proposition must be debatable, holds: It must not be obviously true or false; it must be capable of being proved approximately true or false; and, incidentally, it must not employ question-begging terms. *Argumentation and Debating,* (Second rev. ed., 1932), 5. Another text includes as not debatable "propositions which should be settled by definite tests, or measurements, or investigation" such as the weight of a horse. J. M. O'Neill, Craven Laycock, and R. L. Scales, *Argumentation and Debate,* (1917), 30. Yet another includes in this category questions which are "obviously a matter of taste or prejudice." Donald Hayworth and R. B. Capel, *Oral Argument,* (1934), 20. Still another author discusses the question of debatability under the heading of whether the subject is profitable or not. A. Craig Baird, *Public Discussion and Debate,* (Boston, 1928), 47. Yet other authors do not discuss debatability at all, except for a rule avoiding question-begging terms. J. M. O'Neill and J. H. McBurney, *The Working Principles of Argument,* (1932), 22-27.

[6] The rules governing the selection of a proper subject for debate may be compiled as follows:

(1) The proposition should not be obviously true or false. (There should be two distinct and reasonably balanced sides).

(2) It should be capable of being proved approximately true or false. (There should be a common basis of judgment, some common standard of comparison. Thus, matters of personal taste or opinion should be avoided, as well as questions involving deep prejudice, such as morality or religion.)

(3) It should not be a question of fact, which could be better determined by investigation, such as the weight of a horse or the capacity of a room.

(4) It should have ample information upon it available.

(5) It should be interesting.

(6) It should be timely.

(7) It should cover familiar ground for first practice.

(8) It should be worthwhile discussing. (It should be important or popu-

PHRASING OF THE PROPOSITION

1. It should not employ ambiguous words. (Be capable of but one interpretation).[7]

2. It should embody one central idea. (Should not be double-headed, i.e., include two distinct subjects for debate).[8]

3. It should not be too broad.[9]

4. It should be broad enough to make possible several different lines of argument. (Not too narrow).[10]

5. It should give to the affirmative the burden of proof.[11]

lar, or involve some question of practical life with some human interest at stake.)

(9) It should be adapted (familiar) to the speakers.

(10) It should be one where a comparatively thorough survey of all the evidence is possible.

(11) It should be selected for general suitability.

[7] In annotating the rules governing the phrasing of a proposition, authorities previously mentioned in the footnotes will be cited by name of author and page only. Alden, 12; R. W. Babcock and J. H. Powell, *How to Debate*, (Philadelphia, 1923), 16; Baird, 50; Baker and Huntington, 23; G. R. Collins and J. S. Morris, *Persuasion and Debate*, (1927), 172; G. E. Densmore, *Contest Debating*, (Ann Arbor, Mich., 1929), 24; L. M. Fort, *Oral English and Debate*, (1929), 208; Foster, 6; A. N. Fox, *Modern Debating*, (Chicago, 1932), 18; Fritz, 41; Graves and Spotts, 25; Hayworth and Capel, 21; L. Jones, "Manual for Debaters" in *Debaters Manual*, (ed. by Edith M. Phelps, Third and rev. ed., 1919), 8; V. A. Ketcham, *The Theory and Practice of Argumentation and Debate*, (1914), 16; C. P. Lahman, *Debate Coaching*, (1930), 54; Laycock and Scales, 20; Laycock and Spofford, 18; L. S. Lyon, *Elements of Debating*, (Chicago, 1913), 12; Miller, 20; O'Neill, Laycock and Scales, 28; O'Neill and McBurney, 26; Pattee, 23; J. Walter Reeves, *The Fundamentals of Argumentation and Debate*, (1928), 8; R. C. Ringwalt, *Brief Drawing*, (1923), 50; Shaw, 15; Shurter, 16; A. P. Stone and S. L. Garrison, *Essentials of Argument*, (1916), 14; Winans and Utterback, 29; Willhoft, 23.

[8] Alden, 14; Babcock and Powell, 12; Baird, 49; Baker and Huntington, 22; Collins and Morris, 171; Denney, Duncan, and McKinney, 18; Densmore, 23; Fort, 210; Foster, 8; Fox, 17; Fritz, 41; Graves and Spotts, 25; Hayworth and Capel, 21; Immel and Whipple, 20; Jones, 8; Ketcham, 14; Lahman, 53; Laycock and Spofford, 10; Lyon, 12; Miller, 17; O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales, 27; O'Neill and McBurney, 25; Pattee, 25; Perry, 46; Reeves, 7; Shaw, 13; Shurter, 18; Willhoft, 21; Winans and Utterback, 29.

[9] Baird, 49; Baker and Huntington, 381; Foster, 7; Fox, 18; Hayworth and Capel, 22; Pattee, 24; Perry, 43; Reeves, 7; Shurter, 18; Willhoft, 20.

[10] Baird, 49; Fox, 16; A. B. Hart, "The Art of Debate," in W. D. Brookings and R. C. Ringwalt, *Briefs for Debate*, (1896), xvi.

[11] Babcock and Powell, 13; Baird, 50; Baker and Huntington, 382; Collins and Morris, 171; Densmore, 22; Foster, 8; Fritz, 42; Graves and Spotts, 23;

6. It should be stated affirmatively.[12]

7. It should avoid negative terms.[13]

8. It should not contain question-begging terms.[14]

9. It should be brief, exact, concise, simple.[15]

10. It should be stated preferably as a proposition of policy.[16]

11. It should be concrete, specific.[17]

12. It should exclude what is admitted, express the exact issue as understood by the debaters.[18]

13. It should be stated as an assertion, not an interrogatory.[19]

14. It should be stated as a resolution.[20]

15. It should avoid dependent clauses.[21]

Hayworth and Capel, 23; Jones, 9; Lahman, 55; Lyon, 11; Miller, 19; O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales, 29; O'Neill and McBurney, 24; Pattee, 18; Shaw, 18; Stone and Garrison, 23; apparently immaterial: Perry, 42, 43.

[12] As a rule, it appears that, by stating a proposition affirmatively, the authors mean that it should give the affirmative the burden of proof. At any rate, this latter principle is generally discussed under this head. Alden, 18; Fort, 210; H. F. Covington, *Fundamentals of Debate*, (1918), 4; Fox, 16; Immel and Whipple, 22; Ketcham, 16; MacEwan, 33; J. Walter Reeves, 8; Shurter, 19; Willhoft, 22; Winans and Utterback, 30.

[13] Baird, 50; Baker and Huntington, 382. But it may be negatively stated: Covington, 4; and a negative statement is sometimes preferable: Perry, 41.

[14] Alden, 21; Babcock and Powell, 18; Baird, 50; Baker and Huntington, 21; Collins and Morris, 171; Denney, Duncan, and McKinney, 16; Densmore, 22; Fort, 208; Foster, 5; Fox, 17; Graves and Spotts, 26; Jones, 8; Lahman, 54; Lyon, 12; Miller, 18; O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales, 28; O'Neill and McBurney, 27; Pattee, 19; Perry, 45, 46; Ringwalt, 49; Shaw, 17; Willhoft, 23; Winans and Utterback, 30.

[15] Alden, 21; Babcock and Powell, 18; Baird, 50; Collins and Morris, 173; Densmore, 24; Fort, 212; Foster, 10; Hayworth and Capel, 23; Immel and Whipple, 21; Jones, 9; Ketcham, 18; Lahman, 55; Miller, 20; O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales, 30; O'Neill and McBurney, 24; Shaw, 16; Shurter, 16; Stone and Garrison, 19; Willhoft, 23.

[16] Collins and Morris, 169; Fox, 15; Immel and Whipple, 16; Shaw, 21; Willhoft, 24.

[17] Babcock and Powell, 18; Collins and Morris, 172; Fort, 209; Fritz, 41; Immel and Whipple, 21; Lahman, 55; O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales, 29; O'Neill and McBurney, 24; Shaw, 14.

[18] MacEwan, 29.

[19] Baird, 44; Laycock and Spofford, 9; O'Neill, Laycock, and Sacles, 27; Miller, 16.

[20] Fox, 17; Immel and Whipple, 23.

[21] Baird, 50.

16. It should be worded so that the advantages and disadvantages are equal.[22]

17. It should be sufficiently analyzed to furnish an arguable question.[23]

In meditating upon this phalanx of warnings given by such a formidable aggregation of authority, a novice might be pardoned for supposing that the proposition would achieve its primary object with a few rules to spare. It scarcely seems possible that, enjoined by this battalion of sign-posts, the proposition could avoid walking the straight and narrow path and focusing the debate squarely upon a definite subject. But alas! as every practical forensic man knows, the contrary is the fact. Legitimate issues of interpretation as well as sorties in quibbling are the common acquaintances of all of us. Here follow two or three examples in order to revivify the problem in our minds. In discussing, "Resolved that a court of industrial relations, similar to that of Kansas, should be adopted by the several states," the negative, which was naturally expected to oppose such a court, on the contrary favored it, but argued that it should be a *federal* tribunal in each state instead of a *state* court. The audience, in place of hearing a debate on the merits of a court of industrial relations, was treated to a quibble over the meaning of the phrase, "by the several states." In arguing, "Resolved that the United States should agree to the cancellation of the inter-allied war debts," the word "agree" was construed to mean that America might barter and obtain benefits from cancellation amounting in all practical respects to payment through other means than money; the phrase "inter-allied" was interpreted to mean debts between England and France and between Italy and Great Britain; and at least one affirmative team argued that when a note is paid it is cancelled, and that cancellation of these debts meant, then, payment to the limit of the debtors' ability and then cancellation. A few years ago when the country was debating "Resolved that Congress should enact legislation providing for the centralized control of industry," no two persons appeared able to agree upon just what "centralized control of industry" did mean. Various interpretations, legitimate and otherwise, were indulged in, and debaters discussed almost everything from socialism to the unified administration of reindeer in Alaska.

The foregoing examples are sufficient to remind us that, despite

[22] Fox, 17; Hart, xv.

[23] Baker and Huntington, 20.

the practically unanimous and vigorous censure of quibbling,[24] despite the steadily increasing accumulation of rules governing the matter (almost every new text adds to the collection), our debate propositions remain obdurate. They refuse to focus the discussion on a definite subject. On the contrary, as in the case of centralized control of industry, they appear to encourage precisely the opposite result. In this state of the matter, instead of framing more rules, we might more profitably pause for orientation. Is the proposition inherently ambiguous? Can it ever make the subject for debate definite and certain? Does the language of the proposition in fact foster quibbling and issues of interpretation? If so, what are we to do about it? To answer these questions, an excursion into the structure and meanings of propositions is necessary.

## Judgment and the Proposition

If we look at a flower and it appears to us red, we form a conclusion in our minds to that effect. This conclusion, this mental concept as it exists in our mind (or the act of forming it), is a judgment.[25] Now if we attempt to convey this judgment to others, we generally do so by reducing it to words, that is, phrasing it in a proposition: "The flower is red." Thus, in ordinary language, judgment is the conclusion as it exists in the mind, while proposition is the expression of it in words.[26]

[24] The authorities are very nearly at one to the effect that quibbling over the meaning of terms, and all issues of interpretation should be avoided, and the essential merits and demerits of the proposition should be debated. Alden, 19; Babcock and Powell, 16; Baird, 50; Baker and Huntington, 384; Collins and Morris, 172; Denney, Duncan, and McKinney, 17; Densmore, 24; Fort, 209; Foster, 6; Fox, 19; J. H. Gardiner, *The Making of Arguments*, (Boston, 1912), 49; Hayworth and Capel, 21, 261; Immel and Whipple, 21; Jones, 8; Ketcham, 17; Lahman, 54; Laycock and Scales, 20; Laycock and Spofford, 14; MacEwan, 29; J. M. O'Neill, *A Manual of Debate and Oral Discussion*, (1923), 20; O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales, 24; O'Neill and McBurney, 26. But quibbling is not to be confused with an intelligent effort to make the terms clear. *Ibid.*, 175; Pattee, 23; Reeves, 8; Shaw, 15; Shurter, 16; Stone and Garrison, 20; Willhoft, 23.

[25] Of course there are various theories of judgment, but the statement in the text is sufficiently accurate for the purposes of this article. For an elaborate discussion of judgment see F. H. Bradley, *The Principles of Logic*, (Second ed., 1922), I, 1-242. And see F. C. S. Schiller, *Formal Logic*, (London, 1912), 92-103; *ibid.*, *Logic for Use*, (1930), 208-238.

[26] William Minto, *Logic, Inductive and Deductive*, (1893), 132; F. C. S. Schiller, *Formal Logic*, (London, 1912), 93, 103.

In accurately translating a judgment into a proposition, one encounters difficulties seldom fully appreciated. Consider the case of A, who has a judgment in his mind which he wishes to communicate to B. This really involves two processes. In the first place, A has the task of selecting words which will suitably express his meaning.[27] In the second place, B has the task of interpreting these words in such a way as to apprehend the meaning intended. This presents the entire subject of the inherent ambiguity of words.

Words are merely sounds, and they have no meaning *per se*. The sound "vice" may mean black in English and white *(weiss)* in German. This sound acquires its meaning only through use in varying situations. But since no two situations are precisely identical, the meaning of a word is never anything but approximate. Thus we look at another flower and adjudge it also red; yet it is not exactly the same color as the first, and hence the word "red" takes on a slightly different meaning. Similarly we now "drive" an automobile where we used to drive a horse,[28] yet what we actually do in driving, that is, the meaning, is the same only in a very general sense. In this manner, most words already possess a plurality of meanings and are constantly acquiring new ones.[29] A is therefore confronted with a very real and inherent difficulty in translating his judgment into a proposition, and conveying his exact meaning to B.

And this difficulty is sizably enhanced when the proposition is extracted from its context, that is, from the whole situation and conversations surrounding it. If B merely reads A's isolated statement, "I think centralized control of industry is a good thing," he is likely to get a very indefinite idea of what A is thinking, of the judgment in A's mind. He must know what A was saying before and after, what the circumstances were under which he made the statement, even to approximate the meaning. Dr. F. C. S. Schiller handles this entire necessity very ably, and his ideas are worth extended quotation. He says:

[27] See a splendid discussion of this whole matter with reference to the testimony of witnesses in court: J. H. Wigmore, *The Principles of Judicial Proof*, (Second ed., Boston, 1931), 454. And see F .C. S. Schiller, *Logic for Use*, (1930), 60.

[28] See *ibid.*, 49-74, for this idea and a searching discussion of the meaning of words in propositions.

[29] For a good description of the manner in which words develop meaning see William Minto, *Logic, Inductive and Deductive*, (1893), 82.

It is utterly futile, then, to discuss the value (truth or falsity) of a judgment apart from the circumstances of its origin and the consequences to which it has actually led, or, in one phrase, apart from its use in a context. Without this, its meaning cannot be determined, and we do not know what we are talking about. . . .

This very important point will justify, if not require, copious illustration. Take, for example, the proposition, 'I believe in the thirty-nine articles'. Who can say what this means *per se*? Without the context, we do not even know whether the thirty-nine articles are in a shop or in a creed. The phrase may be used as an exclamation, a quotation, a sarcasm, a lie, or a jest: the least change of reference, emphasis, or expression may alter 'its' meaning so that no Archbishop of Canterbury would recognize it. What it does actually mean depends on who says it, to whom, when, where, why, in what state of mind. Its so-called plain meaning as a 'categorical affirmative' is at best the commonest of its uses; but only a plain man of more than average stupidity (or a logician!) will accept it instead of the actual meanings it bears in its various contexts. . . .

The great range of meaning which the same proposition may convey has not passed entirely unobserved by logicians. Thus Prof. Stout once commented on the vast difference it makes to the remark 'I am going home' whether it is said by a man in the street or on his death-bed.[30]

The field of law affords excellent illustrations of doubtful meanings engendered when a proposition is abstracted from its context. Burglary is generally defined as the breaking and entering of a dwelling in the night-time with intent to commit a felony. For centuries the courts have been trying to ascertain just what this proposition means, and they are still so engaged. For examples, is a man guilty of burglary who steals from a house by going through (a) a hole in the roof,[31] (b) an open transom,[32] (c) a hole in a cellar window left for the purpose of light,[33] or (d) by removing a loose plank in a partition?[34] Were these acts meant by the lawmaker trying to express his judgment in words when he said "breaking" into a house? Nobody knows. Even after adjudication, it means only that the court as then constituted thought so. It may change its opinion. During the Civil War, the Supreme Court of the United States decided that the Constitution meant the federal government could levy an income tax; in 1895 it decided that it did not.[35]

[30] F. C. S. Schiller, *Logic for Use*, (1930), 211.

[31] *Rex v. Spriggs*, 1 M. & Rob. 357.

[32] *McGrath v. State*, 25 Nebr. 780.

[33] *Rex v. Lewis*, 2 C. & P. 628.

[34] *Commonwealth vs. Trimmer*, 1 Mass. 476.

[35] Charles A. Beard, *American Government and Politics*, (1928), 92. Even in this case, an imperfect context was available in the shape of Madison's notes.

From the foregoing, it should be clear that if A is to surmount the inherent ambiguity of words, and frame a proposition which will convey even an approximation of his meaning to B, he must resort to the conversations or printed material or the situation in which he uttered the proposition, and which preceded and followed it. This context will illuminate its phraseology. Without it, the proposition lies supine, susceptible to any sort of construction or misconstruction which B may care to make.

### Application to Debate Propositions

If we apply the above reflections to debate propositions, it is evident just why we argue so many issues of interpretation, and offer so many opportunities for quibbling. A few men assemble for the purpose of selecting a subject. They discuss various problems and finally choose one which they think appropriate. Then they phrase it into a proposition; that is, they form a judgment in their own minds and attempt to express it in words. Probably in most cases, not always, these few individuals have a fairly unanimous conception of what this proposition means. They were present at the conversations preceding its phrasing. They know what was said and what subjects and magazine articles or other materials were referred to when it was discussed. That is to say, they have some idea of its context. But the remainder of the forensic men over the country are in no such position. They have only the naked words of the proposition from which to determine the meaning intended by its framers.[36] They may resort to dictionaries, but the most probable result is a further accumulation of ambiguity.[37] They may resort, as many authors suggest,[38] to the origin and history of the

[36] The difficulties in ascertaining the precise meaning of a proposition even where the disputants are conversing and able to ask questions back and forth is well developed by Alfred Sidgwick, *The Application of Logic*, (London, 1910), 153-200.

[37] It is conceded by most authorities that dictionary definitions, for the purpose of discovering the meaning of terms in propositions, are generally unsatisfactory and frequently useless. For examples see A. Craig Baird, *Public Discussion and Debate*, (Boston, 1928), 85; G. P. Baker and H. B. Huntington, *The Principles of Argumentation*, (New ed., Boston, 1925), 27; W. T. Foster, *Argumentation and Debating*, (Sec. rev. ed., 1932), 27; J. M. O'Neill, Craven Laycock, and R. L. Scales, *Argumentation and Debate*, (1917), 24.

[38] As examples see G. P. Baker and H. B. Huntington, *The Principles of Argumentation*, (New ed., Boston, 1925), 31; W. T. Foster, *Argumentation*

subject: but this assumes a vital prerequisite, to-wit, that they know what the subject is. What subject did the framers have in mind when they used the phrase "centralized control of industry?" It is idle to talk about tracing the origin and history unless the query can be answered: the origin and history of what?

As an example, consider the Pi Kappa Delta question of 1933-34. "Resolved that the powers of the President of the United States should be substantially increased as a settled policy." Probably its framers had a fairly accurate idea of what they intended to discuss, but to the man apart, inspecting its naked phraseology abstracted from its context, the situation was essentially hopeless. The question was announced in the fall, while President Roosevelt was operating under the National Industrial Recovery Act. It was, therefore, open to two very plausible constructions: (1) Did it mean that the substantial increase in powers granted to the President under the NIRA was to be continued as a settled policy, or (2) Did it mean that some substantial increase over and above the NIRA was to be continued? The addition of the phrase "as a settled policy" supported the former interpretation. However, had such been intended, it was reasonable to suppose that the framers would have said simply that the "powers granted under the NIRA" should be continued. The use of the vague concept—a substantial increase in power—rendered the second construction equally plausible. Now here was an ambiguity going to the very essence of the entire discussion, and without its solution no debates on the merits of anything could be had. It was obvious that the continuance of the powers under the NIRA or the continuance of an additional substantial increase in power were two entirely distinct subjects, and until it was determined what was being discussed, no team could present to its audience any argument going to the substantial merits of any proposition. In such a dilemma, those earnestly seeking the real subject for debate could only accept that which seemed to them most probable, and argue it.[39]

*and Debating*, (Sec. rev. ed., 1932), 24; C. A. Fritz, *The Method of Argument*, (1931), 53; J. M. O'Neill and J. H. McBurney, *The Working Principles of Argument*, (1932), 35.

[39] Substantially the same spectacle was staged under the Pi Kappa Delta question of 1931-32, "Resolved that Congress should enact legislation providing for the centralized control of industry." There were a number of proposals extant for economic planning—the Peace Industries Board of Stuart Chase,

But this predicament was merely preliminary. If the second interpretation was decided upon, and the question was construed to mean a new substantial increase over and above the NIRA, a vast domain of ambiguity was opened. Teams could discuss virtually any subject and still bring it within the plausible meaning of the proposition. Debaters all over the country were quick to sense the opportunity, and swung into action with a versatility which left no doubt of their resourcefulness in such matters. A substantial increase in the powers of the President was held to mean presidential legislation in the field of economics subject to a two-thirds veto of Congress; installation of the national executive as a federal chief of police to prevent crime; control of the public school systems to improve education; power to fix the agenda of Congress; regulation of banking and speculation; determination of hours of work, wages, and rates; price-fixing, ownership and operation of the railroads, telegraph and telephones, radios, and what have you; control of all basic industries; authority to inflate or deflate the circulating medium and to alter the gold content of the dollar; a cabinet-parliamentary government; etc., etc., *ad nauseum*. Under such conditions it is evident how futile it is to talk about definitions through explication, negation, example, origin and history of the question, or anything else.

It is true that the foregoing example has to do with a proposition which is essentially vague, the meaning of which remains uncertain even after honest efforts at interpretation. But reasonably clear propositions, once they are abstracted from their contexts, are open to manifold constructions, depending only on whether a team has the inclination to indulge in such practices. The questions relating to the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations and Cancellation of the War Debts are examples. They demonstrate that even the most innocent-looking phrase may reveal itself on the platform as an

the plans of Charles A. Beard, Gerard Swope, Mathew Woll and James W. Gerard, Jay Franklin, etc.—which it seemed likely were contemplated by the framers of the question. But it early developed that one could be by no means certain that even any one of these various projects was to be the subject for debate. The term "centralized control of industry" was held to mean President Hoover's proposed consolidation of government bureaus in Washington, various forms of socialism, unified federal regulation of credit, divers schemes of inflation, the commodity dollar, ownership and operation by the government of the nation's basic industries, and so on *ad infinitum*. Any hallucination which could possibly be conceived as centrally controlling industry became *ipso facto* the subject for debate.

arsenal of ambiguity. Another case in point is the question, "Resolved that the open shop agreement between employer and employee, without collective wage contracts, should prevail in American industry." Now one might naturally suppose that the intended subject for debate was the open shop. Under such a proposition, you would have been exposed as a supreme ignoramus. In an actual debate on this question, the open shop was seldom mentioned. The phrase "without collective wage contracts" was seized upon, placed in irons, and disclosed as a hybrid monster. At first, so the negative speakers stated, they had been uncertain what this phrase meant. But after a month of painstaking and open-minded study, its real character had been revealed to them in all its hideousness. It meant that, in fixing wages, there could be no organization of employees even within a single factory; that every employer would have to deal with every employee individually as to his wages, hours of work, and so forth; that Henry Ford would be compelled to spend all day every week including Sundays bargaining with individual workmen; that this would be going on throughout American industry, with the consequent stagnation of the whole machine; foreign nations would soon outstrip us and the United States would lie prostrate in pitiful decadence. When the affirmative rather angrily accused their opponents of evading the meritorious issues of the question, the negative speakers were solicitous, almost apologetic. They were certainly sorry this situation had developed. It was distasteful to them, they could see it was distasteful to their opponents, and they feared it was distasteful to the judges and audience. But what was to be done? There was the question with the phrase "without collective wage contracts." They had made a thorough study, and had presented their authorities to show just what the phrase meant, and they were helpless to do anything about it. It was just the fault of the question.[40]

Well, now, with such performances going on, it is easy to see why debating is brought into disrepute. If intercollegiate forensics are to be identified with such cross-word puzzles, it appears hopeless to try to present anything approximating the substantial merits of a problem to an audience, or to engage in anything but a season-long legerdemain with meanings and interpretation. With such questions as the presidential powers or the centralized control of industry, the

[40] The negative won this debate by a unanimous decision.

entire debate year unfolds itself as one magnificent field-day for quibblers. The language of the proposition forms a veritable circus ground for their linguistic acrobatics. Its phrases are ransacked, dissected, and analyzed for unusual meanings. The literature is probed for unexpected constructions which might place opponents at a disadvantage. Scores of authorities and reservoirs of sophistry are launched at astonished audiences and perplexed judges to support interpretations which, to state the case mildly, were probably farthest from the intentions of the framers of the proposition. Thus debates, supposed to assist in the solution of a vital, current problem or to be a search for truth, are converted into a welter of ambiguities to the wonderful bewilderment of everybody concerned.

In view of the results obtained under the various debate questions discussed above, it should be evident that phrasing a proposition frequently has very little in common with "focusing the debate on a definite subject," "clearing the ground of discussion," or "determining the exact point in controversy." To the contrary, the phrases of the question merely increase the opportunities for avoiding this "exact point;" and the baneful effects are augmented by the practice of abstracting the proposition from its context and abandoning it to the mutilations of sharpsters to be interpreted as best or worst it can. In this writer's judgment, quibbling will never cease under the present mode of procedure. As one distinguished scholar has stated it: "Nothing can be expressed so simply and clearly that stupidity or malice cannot contrive to miss its meaning."[41]

### The Remedy: The Proposition with its Context

The remedy for this situation appears to be relatively simple.[42] We have seen that the problem confronting the framers of a question (the Pi Kappa Delta question for example) involves accurately transmitting the judgment in their minds, their meaning, to the debaters throughout the nation. We have seen this must be done through the medium of language, and that language is inherently ambiguous. We have seen that this ambiguity can never be perceptibly dissolved so long as the proposition is abstracted from its context, so long as we

[41] F. C. S. Schiller, *Formal Logic*, (London, 1912), 28.

[42] It is worthwhile noting that two leading authorities have suggested a preliminary conference between the teams as a remedy for this difficulty. G. P. Baker and H. B. Huntington, *The Principles of Argumentation*, (New ed., Boston, 1925), 384.

have no idea what the framers were talking of or thinking about when they phrased the naked words of the resolution. It is useless to rule that the proposition shall "not employ ambiguous words" when words are inherently ambiguous. It is futile to rule that the proposition shall be "brief, concise, simple," that it should "express the exact issue as understood by the debaters," when it is impossible to express the exact issue in a concise way, when it is impossible to state what we mean by "centralized control of industry" in eight or ten words. We could go on prescribing such tests forever. The solution is to accompany every proposition with a resumé of its context.

In its more ordinary application, the word "context" describes those parts of a discourse, book, written or printed article, which are closely associated with a particular sentence or proposition, and which should be taken into consideration in determining its meaning. In a broader sense, the word denotes the entire situation or background from which a proposition is asserted, as in the example above, "I am going home." In our discussion here, we are using the word in this latter and broader sense. When we speak of the "context" of a debate proposition, we are referring to the conversations, discussions, correspondence, and the whole situation which surrounded its phrasing, and through which the final proposition emerged.

In the past, when we have wished to restrict the topic for debate, or, as we thought, to make it more clear, we have resorted to modifying phrases. Thus when the discussion leading up to the selection of a proposition has indicated that we wanted to argue whether the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations should be adopted "in the several states," we added this phrase; that is, we included what we considered an important element of the context in the proposition itself. We have seen that this practice has failed to accomplish the results intended, but on the contrary merely has provided further definite sources of misinterpretation. As a fact, it is impossible to clarify the proposition in any thorough-going manner by adding modifying phrases. What is needed is a fairly detailed context of, say, 500 words.[43] It should include a resumé of the conversations leading

[43] Many authorities recognize, for the most part rather incidentally, that recourse should be had to the context in determining the meaning of a proposition. In no case, however, is it assigned the attention which it appears to deserve. On this point, see A. Craig Baird, *Public Discussion and Debate*, (Boston, 1928), 85; G. E. Densmore, *Contest Debating*, (1929), 29; W. T. Foster, *Argumentation and Debating*, (Sec. rev. ed., 1932) 27; J. M. O'Neill,

up to the actual phrasing, showing the precise problem or proposal that is intended to be debated (such as the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations) and the precise aspects of this problem (that is, whether we are to argue that each state should institute such a court, or whether the federal government is to establish it, or merely whether such a court is generally desirable). There should also be included, when necessary, reference to one or two specific magazine articles containing a thorough exposition of the subject, where all debaters could have recourse to find exactly what was intended by the framers of the question.

In some cases a resumé, not of the conversations themselves, but of the conclusions springing from them, might be drafted. Strictly speaking, this would not be a draft of the context, but rather, of the conclusions as to the meaning of the proposition rising out of the context. Actually, then, it would be a detailed and expanded definition of the terms of the proposition. There is no reason to suppose, however, that if properly drawn, it would be any less effective than the actual context in determining the precise meaning of the proposition. This is apparently what two authors have in mind when they recommend, by way of amplifying the proposition, drawing "up a series of qualifying statements to be used by the teams, agreeing upon the exact ground to be covered."[44]

The result of accompanying every debate proposition with a resumé of its context would, it is confidently believed, be decidedly advantageous to debating everywhere. Quibbling would be rigorously constricted, or to say the least, handicapped. Of course, it may be argued that if words are inherently ambiguous, the addition of some 500 to the proposition would not especially assuage the difficulty. But this argument is specious. The student bent on questionable interpretation can build a fairly plausible case based on the comparatively few words of the proposition, but the context would be practically unmanageable. If any chicanery were attempted, the opposing side might take a few minutes to read the whole context —very likely a ruthless exposure. It is exceedingly improbable that a mal-interpretation of the entire context could be successful. More-

Craven Laycock, and R. L. Scales, *Argumentation and Debate*, (1917), 303; J. M. O'Neill and J. H. McBurney, *The Working Principles of Argument*, (1932), 176.

[44] Ray Keeslar Immel and Ruth Huston Whipple, *Debating for High Schools*, (Boston, 1929), 21.

over, it would greatly assist students who were earnestly trying to determine what the framers of the proposition meant, and present the relative merits and demerits of it to the audience. In considering the question, "Resolved that the powers of the President of the United States should be substantially increased as a settled policy," we should know from the context just what was the problem intended. We should know whether we were to debate the powers embodied in the NIRA, the advisability of inflation, or the alteration in the gold content of the dollar. We should know just what was contemplated by a "substantial increase in the powers of the President." The issues would become more definite; and the proposal, whatever it might be, with all its substantial advantages and disadvantages, could be profitably presented to an audience. The proposition, accompanied by its context, might very confidently be expected to subserve its primary object; it might very confidently be expected to "clear the ground of discussion," hold "efforts to a single point," and fix "the exact point in controversy." Debating might, then, in a very genuine sense, assist in the solution of many of our current problems.

## THE "HOBBY" SPEECH

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ANYONE would be a hardy dogmatist indeed who tried to state in one sentence what an introductory course in public speaking does for a student. But I take it that I may be safe in assuming that one of the major aims of such a course is to help the student learn to organize and articulate his experience clearly, interestingly and with some point. Let us hope that it is not beyond the province of such a course to help the student so to articulate himself in public.

By "experience" I mean what is popularly and casually included in that term. I mean also intellectual experiences, which, before the advent of the behaviorists, was supposed to take place in the mind. I mean also emotional experience, which the poets have carelessly ascribed to the heart. We are all gladdened by the spectacle of a student showing in a speech some evidence of mature thinking which has been stimulated by academic experience and may even have been nurtured by the humble efforts of teachers of speech.

I wonder whether we ought not to recognize more than we do that a student's non-academic experience constitutes justifiable and certainly inevitable material for intellectual experience and worthy talebearing. I refuse to be frightened by the spectre of a student's shocking us with lurid tales of his last wild party or, what is more painful, boring us with reproduction of the trivial and non-significant.

I have come to this point of view inductively. In the past six years I have come in contact with student after student who has "found himself" through what we call "The Hobby Speech." In this assignment (one of five major assignments in the introductory course) each student is asked to explain a hobby. Our change in emphasis over a period of six years is not without significance. We started with the conventional title: Expository Speech. But speeches on hobbies began to appear and they showed such marked superiority in every respect that very quickly the assignment itself assumed its present title.

Of course there are some students who do not have hobbies—just as there are some who have several. Those who lack the rich experience of a hobby we tell to explain any process with which they have had direct experience. That gives the fellow who does not boast a hobby but who has worked in a Ford factory the chance to show that Fords are actually made and not created by sweep of the magic wand. As a matter of fact, some of our most interesting explanations come out of non-hobby experience. The student who knew how to work a square-rigged ship because of having sailed with one did not devote every spare moment to the manipulation of square riggers. The one who accompanied Sir Wilfred Grenville on his expedition explained how to hunt walruses, though such activity did not claim the prominence of an avocation; and the one who told "The Adventures of a Letter from Sender to Receiver" may have chosen his experience with the United States mail for no more than pecuniary motives.

The emphasis, however, remains upon hobbies. We get such subjects as "Sail Skating," "Taxidermy," "Woodcarving" as a matter of course. The sail skater will probably display his sails, the taxidermist a finished squirrel, the woodcarver recognizable likenesses of familiar objects or beasts carved from wood. The latter may carve as he talks.

Hobbies are not limited to manual skills. A disquisition on chess may appeal to the "intellectual"; "Ancient Leather Bookbinding"

may please the antiquarian; "Chirography" may interest those interested in divining human character; the student whose interest is Renaissance art may explain, partly by diagrams, how Benvenuto Cellini made his statue of Perseus. Nor are the sadistic ignored, for we may have explained at any moment "How to Deodorize Skunks" or "How to Butcher a Sheep." When we hear of some subjects we wonder at first what can be made of them. But we discover that "The Crow" is a fascinating creature, that "Bottles of Water" have been collected from the world's supply of oceans, rivers, and lakes, that "Whips" is but a modest promise of a thrilling demonstration of the dreadful accuracy of the Australian bullwhacker's whip. It would be sad indeed if humor did not appear in any collection of speeches. "How to Make Milking Time Enjoyable" is delightfully whimsical, while "How to Take an Ocean Voyage" is convulsively witty.

Of course, we get a certain amount of repetition. "Stamp Collecting," "Coin Collecting" we have with us always. There is no excuse for not acquiring a sound body after we have explained how to play every conceivable sport. It is no fault of those who year after year explain how to play the piano, the banjo, the violin, etc., that symphony orchestras do not spring up overnight. Nor would I suggest for one moment that these repetitions become boring. There is far less repetition than one would suppose. And in practically every case of repetition, a different personality will produce an individual experience. I am constantly amazed at how little repetition we do get. In the group of 250 who take the fundamentals course every year, I should guess that at least half of the subjects are new. When I mention "Dog Racing," "Tropical Fish," "Composing Songs," "Cartoon Drawing,"[1] "French China," "Target Shooting," "Moths and Butterflies," "Knives" (homicidal), "Etching," "Peculiar Cases at Law," I do so only to realize that it is utterly impossible to point to two dozen of these subjects and say, "These are the most curious." Indeed, there are many things but little dreamt of in our philosophy.

On the other hand, long familiarity with a hobby or an experience often fosters one curious effect. Every now and then we find students more than usually modest about more than usual subjects.

[1] In another of our assignments one Thomas Nast told us of his grandfather, Thomas Nast, the great cartoonist.

For example, we find a student "looking for a subject" who has helped make Persian rugs (whole families make them) or there is one who hesitates between telling about his rare collection of guns and a subject wonderful only in its triteness.

Do some of these subjects sound childish? Adult visitors have found them interesting and have been credulous enough to speak of "a liberal education" which listening to these speeches does nothing to destroy. More than one student has more firmly fixed a legitimate interest. One man decided to become an aeronautical engineer after his experience with a speech on model aeroplanes had convinced him that there was something in it.

One could enlarge on the less obvious benefits of this assignment —as he could in the case of any assignment—until he reached the realm where the wish is father to the thought. But one result which might escape the casual eye has proved itself. Explaining a process with the materials of concreteness within each reach: drawings, fruits of what one is talking about, such as the model aeroplane itself, action necessary to demonstrate raising a canoe to one's shoulders—these lead a student into a normal realization of the effectiveness, and therefore the value, of concreteness. If a student learns nothing else but that "he is the best orator who can turn men's ears into eyes," he will have learned something.

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## BUILDING A STOCK OF ILLUSTRATIONS

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THE speaker who stops at the proper instant and says, "To illustrate this point—" has the respect and attention of his audience. More than that, his argument will have greater force than if he had not used illustrative material. Because added argument, and the interest and attention of the audience, are desirable goals for the speaker to attain, we are all interested in whether we can train ourselves and others to attain them.

As soon as the speaker considers his audience, looking at them, having them a part of the speech, working with them, wanting them to go along with him, then he develops the desire to make everything crystal clear. Hence the call for illustrations.

How will the speaker find illustrations? There is no code ar-

rangement—"If this is said—say that." There can be no specific rules. There is only one answer. The individual who builds a vast storehouse of illustrations which can be used on demand has more chances of getting the right one than he who knows but few. The law of averages has not been repealed.

One of my students, in response to the question, "Where do you get your illustrations," answered as follows: "(1) *Elbert Hubbard Scrap Book,* (2) *Reader's Digest,* (3) stories given in class plus those on the board, (4) stories given in other speeches, (5) material heard over the radio, (6) conversation with people, (7) *Fortune Magazine,* (8) *American Mercury,* (9) *Vanity Fair,* (10) *Golden Book,* (11) *Los Angeles Times.*"

Another student reports: "I have had this semester about eighty (illustrations) from newspapers, forty from oral conversations or speeches and thirty from the blackboard."

Yet another: "I collected my stories and jokes in this way—(1) I have always kept a note book and pencil when I read a book, and if I came across a sentence, quotation or joke that I especially liked, I copied it. (2) There are certain columns in the newspaper which I always read—Will Rogers, Harry Carr, the Lee Side of Los Angeles and so on."

And another, "Sources of illustrations. (1) *Collier's,* (2) *Saturday Evening Post,* (3) *Time,* (4) *Book of Proverbs,* (5) *Encyclopedia of Quotations,* (6) Ross, *Principles of Sociology.*"

There has been reference in two or three of these comments about the blackboard. I put up a printed motto each week. One of my students makes a series for the semester. Examples: "Stand for Something," "Great Doers are Great Talkers," "Think Clearly—Speak Accurately," "Think," "What Words Characterize Our Generation?"

Three times a week, I post a direct quotation from someone like Fosdick, the Rev. Mr. Claxton, C. G. Dawes, Henry Ford, Hitler, Coolidge, Gorki, Pitkin, *et al.* And on one side is a vocabulary corner. Here are questions having to do with increasing the vocabulary. I find that many of these questions, along with the exercises given or suggested, tend to add to the store of illustrations. It is gratifying to see how these items creep into the students' note books, into their speeches, and, I hope, into their lives.

Here is a workable method of classifying illustrations: I always carry a note book. Into this I put the following always: (a) Any

stray remark or joke that may have possible value. (b) A personal analysis of every speaker I hear. (c) Observations that I make as I walk along, ideas that may come to mind concerning some speech or possible speech situation. Periodically I copy these remarks on 4x6 cards.

Everything goes through my file of 4x6 cards. Direct quotations are filed under the most appropriate heading. For example, I run across the following statement from Fosdick: "We let first come be first serve, forgetting that the finest things do not crowd. We let the loudest voices fill our ears, forgetting that asses bray, but gentlemen speak low." This I type on a card. In the upper right-hand corner I place the source of the reference. On the left I place the word that is the subject-heading for filing. What shall the heading be? This quotation is a hard one. A possibility might be "Superiority." Another might be "First Things." Sometimes it is easy: "Minds are like parachutes; they function only when open." Undoubtedly this belongs under "Open-mindedness."

Material that is too long to be put on cards I file under its appropriate subject-heading in a file large enough to take 8½ by 11 paper. A card, 4x6, is made with this same subject-heading, but in the right-hand corner, instead of a reference, I put "See File." This means that the material is filed away under the appropriate heading, as indicated by the subject-heading on the left.

There is yet another division of the 4x6 card file. Permanent things like books, bound magazines, etc., that I have in the office, are indexed by putting the particular subject-heading on the left and the reference to the book on the right.

All cards are alphabetically arranged. There are several thousand of them now and the file grows constantly. It is not a substitute for the library, but it does give me a convenient source for material in a hurry. It is a tangible representation of my effort to build up a store-house of illustrations that can be used when the occasion demands.

In building up the ability to use illustrations in speaking, there is no substitute for hard work. Results, I believe, are worth the effort.

# SPEECH WITHOUT WORK?

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EFFECTIVE speaking without hours of direct attention to improving action, voice, and language as tools for communication, speech training without speech classes, results with less effort—that is what every speech teacher is seeking.

The question of whether proficiency in speech can be gained as a by-product of other courses in the high school curriculum has never been answered conclusively. Many secondary school principals and teachers contend that time and money can be saved by abolishing classes in which theory and practice of speech are given consideration. They advocate practice in every course in the high school curriculum. Their contention is that the presentation of the subject-matter of each course gives opportunity for practice in speaking. Under this plan, the theory of speech is omitted as not essential in developing proficiency in communication. In addition, they omit the direct consideration of each individual's speech difficulties.

In an effort to throw some light on this problem, a comparison of speech teaching methods was carried on in the experimental high school at the University of Wisconsin. Sixty-three freshmen with no previous speech training were divided into three sections and a different method of speech training used in each section.

In order to have three sections of equal speech ability and to have some measure of individual ability, the pupils were judged at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The ratings were made by eighteen judges representative of the average non-selected audience. There were housewives, university professors and students, lawyers, doctors, janitors, ministers, etc. They ranged in age from 19 to 65.

Each student announced by number then appeared before this board of judges presenting a short excerpt from a story, and a two-minute speech of instruction. The judge then placed the student's number under Poor, Fair, Good, Excellent, depending upon what general impression he had made upon that judge.

The ratings of the judges were weighted and the average numerical rank was determined for each individual. These ranks were used

to place students in three sections so that each section would have an equal number of persons of approximately equal ability.

The sections were then taught by different methods. The eight o'clock class received instruction by the indirect method; the nine o'clock class, by the direct method; the ten o'clock class, by a combination of the direct and indirect. The same person taught each section.

The outstanding characteristic of the indirect method was that the students themselves were not conscious of their specific action, voice, and language difficulties. The class period was devoted to a discussion of subject-matter only. The subject-matter was chosen by the teacher and assigned to each individual with his particular speech difficulty in mind. There were readings from all types of literature, discussions of controversial questions, and reports from other courses in the high school curriulum. At no time was attention called directly to the voice, bodily action, or oral language of a single individual.

The outstanding characteristic of the direct method was that each student was aware of his specific difficulties of voice action, and oral language. These were called to his attention directly. Methods of correction were outlined and carried out. Improvement was noted and discussed by the class. Practice was emphasized more than theory.

The two foregoing methods were combined in the teaching of section three. Here the training was about equally divided between the direct and the indirect methods. Each child understood his problem and the theory underlying his training.

The same elements of speech were given consideration in each of the three sections. The same amount of time was devoted to the various elements, and they were considered in the same order.

At the end of the semester the students appeared before the same board of judges for a second rating. The method of judging was the same as used at the beginning of the semester. The average rank for each student was computed in the same way. These ranks were then compared with those received before speech training.

A hasty comparison of the ranks before and after taking the course shows that in section one, .6 of the students got higher ranks from the judges after taking the course. In section number two, .8 received a higher rank after taking the course. In section three, .85 received a higher rank after taking the course. It must be remembered that in the second rating the judges were not requested to com-

pare the performance after taking the course with the one before taking the course, but to place the students in four groups according to ability. These directions would tend to equalize the four groups rather than place larger numbers in the upper brackets.

Using Edward L. Thorndike's formula for finding the reliability of the averages and differences, we obtain a coefficient of 1.33 where the indirect method was used, which means 8,097 chances in 10,000 that this is a real difference, 3.22 where the direct method was used, which means 9,845 chances out of 10,000 that this is a real difference, and 4.06 in the combined method, which means 9,968 chances out of 10,000 that this is a real difference. The results in this last group were encouraging. The coefficient of reliability of 4.06 shows that chances for improvement by this method are practically certain. The entire experiment seems to show that speech improvement cannot be assured unless speech as such is given direct consideration, and that this training should be carried on in a course primarily designed for this purpose.

The question that naturally arises in the mind of any interested person is, would the same result follow in another school, with other students, and with a teacher having different interests and training? This experiment was carried on in a University High School, by a teacher whose major interest was speech. With these questions in mind, an English major with a Speech minor was invited to try the same experiment in the High School at Neenah, Wisconsin. She divided her groups in the same way but added a control group. This group at the beginning of the semester had the same speech ability as the other three groups. They were judged at the beginning and at the end with those receiving speech training, but were given no instruction in speech. The following table shows how closely the results follow those obtained in the Wisconsin High School experiment, the differences not only in the same direction but in the same order.

| | | Coefficients of reliability | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Neenah Wisconsin High | |
| Group No. 0 | No speech training | .5 | |
| Group No. 1 | Indirect | 2.37 | 1.33 |
| Group No. 2 | Direct | 3.7 | 3.22 |
| Group No. 3 | Composite | 5.2 | 4.06 |

# DECLAMATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

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*PURPOSE:* One is much more likely to succeed in a venture if he first pauses and attempts to define, as clearly as possible, what his objective is to be. This general rule finds specific application in work in declamation. What should be its objectives? What goals should the teacher and student try to reach through it? Speaking negatively, one may say that the goal should *not* be to win a contest. Such a result, when and if it comes, should always be a by-product of something far more fundamental. Speaking affirmatively, this "something far more fundamental" should be a greater appreciation and enjoyment of good literature and, built on this, a greater ability to impart this appreciation and enjoyment to other people by means of the spoken word. The order stated is most important. The oral expression must grow out of understanding and appreciation. If it does not, it is destined to be mere sham, mimicry, histrionic demonstration, or some other form of artificial display—the enemy of all effective speech work.

*Procedure:* Every step in the carrying on of declamatory work should be taken in view of the purpose, already defined.

*Selection of the declaimer:* There may be difference of opinion as to whether the person should pick the selection or whether the person should be picked on the basis of the selection. The viewpoint presented by this article is that the student is of primary and also of ultimate importance. Hence the selection of the person to give the declamation comes first. If possible, this selection should be made over a period of time and as a part of the regular class work in oral English. If political considerations demand it, or if the instructor is unwilling to assume full responsibility, the selection may be made by a judge or judges, preferably a competent critic judge. The methods may be mixed; the instructor may carry on the preliminary selection while the judge picks the single winner (or winners for groups) at a final public "hearing." (None of the material included under this point has any significance except in those instances where the declamation work points toward some public contest, local or more extensive.)

*Choice of the selection:* It is not a betrayal of any trade secret to

say that a great deal of the material used in high school declamation work, using the declamation contest as a criterion, is unfortunately selected. Much of it could not be called literature by any flight of the most liberal critic's imagination. It is likely to be poorly written, over-emotional, or over-dramatic. Worst of all, it is likely to be entirely unsuited to the age and temperament of the student presenting it.

There is no need for a dogmatic rule or arbitrary list of "allowed" selections. The instructor need only keep in mind the first objective of the work—to develop a greater appreciation and enjoyment of good literature in the student. It would certainly be an insult to the capacity of the high school teacher of English to have to say that good literature need not be limited to Shakespeare or Dante, but that it scarcely includes such drivel as "Clarence at the Cat-calling Contest." (The title is not copyrighted.)

*Training the declaimer:* After the student and the instructor have picked a selection adapted to the person who is to give it and one that falls in the category of good literature (even if this need be defined rather loosely) the work of training the student may begin. Each step in this process should be purposeful and should lead directly to the desired result.

Since marked individual differences will exist among the selections and the declaimers, it is not desirable to attempt to formulate and apply rigid rules of procedure. What will be effective in one instance will fail in another. Hence the suggestions which follow are deliberately generalized; the specific application must be worked out for each problem as it arises.

1. The student should read the selection through, silently, to get the general drift of the thought, and should then read it through very carefully, looking up all words concerning which there may be the slightest doubt and investigating all allusions.

2. Now the student should write a summary of the selection, in his own words, keeping the point of view of the original, and about one-third of the length of the original. The instructor should examine this summary carefully to be sure that the student has the correct impression concerning the selection.

3. After this the student is ready to make a more minute analysis of his selection. Some authors suggest that each sentence should be analyzed; others believe that smaller word groups may have to be the primary unit of analysis. The selection should determine the

approach. The student should thoroughly understand not only the significance of each unit but also the relationship between units and the relation of each part to the selection as a whole.

4. Once the factual side of the selection is thoroughly understood, the student is prepared to consider the attitudes or emotional aspects of it. He should determine what moods the author wishes to portray, what feelings he wishes to stir up in the listener. These must be drawn from the selection itself and must be actually existent there. They should never be read into it by either student or teacher.

5. Only after this analysis has been completed *carefully* should the student give any thought to memorization. Much of the memory work may already be completed—a by-product of the analysis. The student should be taught not only to memorize by the whole method but also to memorize meanings rather than mere sound combinations commonly called words. Short, spaced practice periods will be found more valuable than a few long practices. During private practice the student should use as much appropriate physical action, such as pantomime and gesticulation, as possible. This will help him to get the spirit of his selection and to make himself responsive to that spirit.

6. From this point the procedure will have to be formulated to fit the demands of the situation. The following general considerations may help.

A. The basis of the reading should be good conversation and audience communication, not artificial demonstration of techniques.

B. A cardinal sin of reading is to read so that one is not heard. Enunciation and voice projection are far more important than loudness.

C. Most beginners read too fast. The problem here includes both reading rate and length and frequency of pause. Let the student always consider the audience and whether he is giving them sufficient time to understand and appreciate his selection.

D. Character delineation should be effected by the voice as a whole and not by a single aspect of it. Sex differentiation, for example, is not primarily a matter of changing the pitch of the voice.

E. Vocal variety should be exaggerated, but should always grow out of the response of the whole person of the reader to the selection.

F. Declamation is *not* acting. Literal action, such as turning to differentiate characters, kneeling, and the like, should be avoided.

*Judging the declamation:* If the declamation is presented in any

type of a contest, it will be judged by someone. Who should judge and what should the standards of judgment be? The point of view of this discussion has been that declamation is for the student. If the instructor really adopts this policy and does not give mere lip service to it, he will try to avoid every type of decision which involves only a verdict, whether it is given by persons chosen at random or by so-called experts, and will try to secure a decision which involves constructive criticism as well as verdict.

## STORY TELLING

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THE popularity of story telling, one of the oldest and most loved arts, is marked even in this era of invention and mechanics. It enters nearly every phase of oral communication, and is appreciated and welcomed by all. Little children's faces light up with radiant anticipation when they beg for a "good night story"; adults enjoy hearing and telling stories; and that speaker is the most entertaining and sought after who possesses the skill of interspersing his remarks and illustrating his poinits with appropriate stories. Stories invade the realms of after dinner speaking, conversations, the radio, the stage—in short, the drama of life. He who would command the attention and interest of his fellowmen must be versed, to some extent, in the art and value of artistic story telling.

The standing of the story teller in the community has always been the highest. In olden times, he was hailed as a joy-bringer and heeded as an oracle. He furnished information as well as entertainment, since there were no newspapers and books available. Being ranked with royalty, he was free to wander at will unquestioned into camp or court. Today, in spite of newspapers and books in untold numbers, he still holds his regal place in society, though perhaps in a different way. Now it is not a few privileged characters who are the story tellers of the race, but all make use of the art, some more skillfully than others.

Story telling is credited with a four-fold value; physical, educational, emotional, and ethical. The leading of thought into paths away from the contemplation of self calms and rests one, thus establishing a readiness for renewed activity. The presentation of life

pictures through stories "holds the mirror up to nature," teaching an appreciation of the life and customs of one's own and of other nations, tolerance, generosity, and brotherly love; developing the imagination which makes one joyous, social, enthusiastic and idealistic; training the memory; and enlarging the vocabulary. The emotional value of the story lies in the pleasure derived by the teller and the audience and the good accomplished through the arousing of such emotions as stimulate compassion, helpfulness, and the like. The story has an ethical value in being a powerful means of portraying the difference between right and wrong and influencing the listener to want to do right. It develops character by helping the child or anyone hearing it to know what is good, to feel what is good, and to desire to do what is good.

Little wonder then that so valuable an art has found its way into the modern high school and college as a special course, that our young people may learn its technique, becoming more pleasing to their associates and helping to advance civilization. One school has found that socializing the course of Story Telling by group work is very satisfactory and productive of originality, interest, and good results. For example, the class is assigned a certain type of story to study, perhaps the Bible story, the epic, or the true story. After a class discussion about the essential characteristics of the particular type of story, groups are formed to prepare a program, based on a story told by one of the group. Under the leadership of a chairman, who introduces each one and links the parts, these programs are given first in class and then the best ones are subject to call for entertainment in various home rooms and organizations of the school. Some of the successful program plans have been as follows:

BIBLE STORIES

1. David and Goliath (story)
2. Discussion of Giants
3. Methods of Warfare in Bible times.
4. Discussion of Slings
5. Life of David

1. David the Shepherd Boy (story)
2. Reading of Psalm 23
3. Discussion of Bible Stories
4. Story of David, from the Scriptures
5. Why David Was Appointed King.

1. The Story of Ruth
2. Discussion of the Bible
3. Talk on Jerusalem

4. Derivation of Names
5. Singing of "Rock of Ages" and "Jerusalem"
1. Noah and the Ark (story)
2. Discussion of Doves
3. Floods
4. Original Poem by Marjorie Strand

TRUE STORIES

(True stories are taken from any field, such as stories of great people, animals, paintings, inventions, etc.)

1. Facing an Arctic Blizzard (story)
2. Doctor Grenfell's Life
3. Newfoundland
4. Dogs of the North
1. Biography of Calvin Coolidge
2. A True Story about Calvin Coolidge
3. A poem "The Open Door," Written by Grace Coolidge
4. Eulogy of Coolidge
1. Story of Jacob Wrestling with the Angel
2. Discussion of Painting
3. Art Galleries
4. Rembrandt
5. Showing of Pictures to Class

EPICS

1. The Holy Grail (story)
2. Meaning of the Holy Grail
3. King Arthur's Round Table
4. Alfred Tennyson
1. Song of Roland
2. Oliver, Roland's Best Friend
3. Parts of France Where Story Originated (Pictures of France)
4. Charlemagne

LEGENDS, FAIRY TALES, FOLKLORE

1. The Flying Dutchman (legend)
2. The Cape of Good Hope
3. Vassals
4. Superstitions of Sailors
1. Story—The Nightingale (Chinese Folklore)
2. Nightingales
3. Interesting Things about China
4. Religion of the Chinese
1. Story—Hansel and Gretel (German Fairy Tale)
2. Author
3. A Trip to Germany
4. German Customs

# STORY-TELLING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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STORY TELLING is one of the oldest of arts. Before the violin charmed its listeners, before people learned to love the piano, our forefathers were entertained by the art of the story teller.

With the beginning of language, story telling became a pleasant part of the life of those early people. To this day, it remains to enrich the lives of those wise enough to listen. To an audience, the story gives not only pleasure, but a larger understanding of one's fellow men. Perhaps a lesson may be taught indirectly. A love of language, beautiful, direct, and poignant, may be instilled.

The story teller learns to love the best literature; he learns to differentiate between the mediocre and the good. Unselfish and thoughtful of others, he so loses himself in the message he carries that he is no longer self-conscious. He enlarges his vocabulary and develops discernment and judgment.

Story telling by children is an important part of a school curriculum. Telling his own experience is the child's easiest form of story-telling and is used most in primary grades. Beginning with three-sentence stories in his language work, he tells when, who, or what he saw or did in the first two sentences, and how he felt about it in the third. In these three-sentence stories, the child learns to plan what he is going to say; he learns to think and to express himself clearly and in an interesting manner. When he has gained a good sentence-sense, he need not be limited so strictly to three-sentence stories.

The instructor should tell many stories to the children. Of course the teacher should be able to tell stories well herself. If she does not, she had better read the stories. Many of the stories will be told over and over again. A good story never grows old to a child. Soon he will want to tell it; and he will reproduce it almost word for word—not because he has tried to memorize it, but because he has lived the story as it was told to him. The story has become a part of him, and he naturally wants to share it. One half-hour period each week is well spent in this activity.

So, in the primary grades, the two principal types of story-

telling are brief talks on personal experiences and the extemporaneous retelling of stories heard or read. Children should consider it natural and delightful to tell their stories. The story period from beginning to end should be a joyful time.

As the child becomes older, he feels the need of learning how to tell stories well. Perhaps he is to tell a story in an auditorium program. His teacher doesn't tell stories to him so often any more. He no longer has the opportunity of learning an oft-repeated story, and besides, he wants one that will be entirely new to his audience. Where will he get it? What kind will he select? How will he learn to tell it?

If the teacher has been wise, she has been preparing for just such a time. First, in all of his oral work, the child has been taught and urged to speak correctly. He has learned to use the best word to fit his meaning. He has learned to adjust the tone and volume of his voice to the size of the room—a loud voice for the auditorium, a medium voice when speaking to all of the children in his schoolroom, and a soft voice with a small group of five or six. He has learned how uninteresting a monotone is; that every child owns and uses a fine musical instrument, his "voice-box." He will use high tones and low tones. He will make the giant talk loudly and gruffly, the fairy godmother softly and sweetly. Usually he will talk very slowly so that everyone may understand. Sometimes he will increase the speed of his words for emphasis, and at that time he must speak particularly clearly. He must not "squeeze" his words; he must learn to open his mouth and let his jaw muscles help him talk. He has learned to look directly at the people in his audience while he speaks to them.

From hearing and reading only the best of children's literature, the child should have developed a taste for good stories. However, in this day of the sensational movie and the cheap, thrilling stories heard outside of school, his literary taste may be far from what is to be desired.

What will the teacher do? She will suggest several stories, all of them good, let him choose one from them, and give him some suggestions as to how to prepare it.

Now, to her class, she may say, "Charles is going to tell a story in the auditorium and has come to me for help. He found that he had some problems: what to select, and how to prepare the story. One of these days, perhaps some of the rest of us are going to have

these same problems. Shall we learn how to tell stories now, so that when we are asked, we shall be ready? On the blackboard is an outline of some topics we might study."

1. History of story telling
2. How to select a story
   a. What to select for your audience
3. Structure, or what makes a good story
4. How to prepare a story for telling
   a. Attributes of a good story teller

From day to day the teacher can take a little time to talk about the topics in this outline. (It seems best for the teacher to do this part.)

*The History of Story Telling*—the first talk

I'd like you to travel with your mind's eye back to the day of the Tree Dwellers. Fire had not been discovered. Language had just begun; there was no story telling. With the discovery of fire, many blessings came. Man discovered that animals feared fire, and so with a fire brand, he chased them from their caves and appropriated an animal's cave for his home. Now somebody always had to stay at home to tend the fire, for, not having matches, it was no easy matter to start a fire. Perhaps the women stayed at home. When the hunters came back with their game, they felt the desire to tell each other and their wives of their experiences. Their vocabulary was very limited, and so they dramatized their story, showing by the motions of their bodies what had happened, and dancing about the fire to the rhythmic beat of tom-toms. This was, perhaps, the first story telling.

Now think of the nomad as he watched his sheep at night. The hours were long. There was plenty of time to wonder about the stars, the rain, the thunder, and other phenomena of the universe, and he made up stories about them to satisfy the questions in his own mind.

Now picture the "days of old when knights were bold." Wandering minstrels were welcomed to the homes of peasants, in castle halls, or before the thrones of kings, because of the songs they sang and the stories they told. These old bards were, in all probability, our first professional story tellers.

There was a period in our history, while people were too busy fighting and building homes and nations, that little story telling was done. Now, again, people are taking up story telling as an art, like music and painting.

*Selecting the Story*—the second talk

How are we going to know what story to choose? People who have made a study of the subject have given us some helps. They say that tiny children like stories that contain much repetition. The children enjoy stories of home and mother, and such animal stories as "Three Little Pigs." They always want their stories to have a happy ending. Nothing in the story must frighten them. After a child has been in school for a few years, he likes fairy tales best of all. From ten years of age on, he likes Indian stories and adventure tales. And the almost-grown-up girl and boy like romantic stories.

The story you select to tell must have a central thought. It must be interesting. It should be well written, with a fine vocabulary. And it should be short.

In other words, choose a story that is worth while. It should be appropriate for the age and interests of your audience. It should be short, with each incident leading to the central thought as each spoke in a wheel leads to the hub. A good story should not take more than ten minutes to tell. If it is longer than that, omit all incidents that are not absolutely necessary.

*The Structure of a Good Story*—the third talk.

A good story for telling has a short introduction. It will have a complicating force. In other words, the introduction will tell a good reason for the story's having been written. The story must be full of action. The greater part of a story is known as the body of the story. The point of highest interest is called the climax, and the end is called the conclusion. The conclusion must be short. To make the climax exciting, use short sentences.

*The Preparation of the Story*—the fourth talk.

To prepare a story for telling, first read it through for your own enjoyment. Then read it slowly, making a mental moving picture of it. Think over the mental pictures you saw. Re-read the story to make certain your pictures were all in the right order and that none were left out. Make a brief outline of the incidents. Check with the original. Read the story again. Then try telling it in your own words. Practice it many times aloud before trying to tell it to an audience.

A good story teller remembers that his message comes first in importance, his audience second, and he himself in the background, "grey like a mist." He speaks clearly, looking directly at his audience. He uses direct discourse wherever he can, rather than indirect. Because he wants to tell the story very naturally, he seldom tries to memorize. He does endeavor, however, to maintain the style of the author; by living the story, reading it and re-reading it, he learns much of the story by heart without trying to. When an author has a style of writing so peculiarly his own that it would be desecration to tell the story in one's own words, the story-teller memorizes. (For example, the style of Rudyard Kipling.) It isn't necessary to "think up" special gestures. If the story makes you want to move your hands, they help tell the story. Naturalness is the keynote of good story telling.

# NEW AIMS FOR DEBATE

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MUCH has been written about the incongruity of including debating in the curriculum of the modern secondary school. Such training is said to run counter to those of our aims which specify preparation for citizenship in a democratic society. However, most of these criticisms are based on a fundamental misapprehension as to what debating is. To clarify this misunderstanding, let me apply an old but reliable debating device—definition.

Debating is the orderly marshalling of arguments for the consideration (not delectation) of listeners, so that these auditors may the more wisely decide on a course of action. Now, this definition is not a joker, nor is it merely etymologically or historically justified. It is what debating actually is, in practice, and what it should be in schools. Its purpose, then, is to get an audience to agree with you in your conclusion as to what constitutes the truth, or a wise course of action.

The difficulty in most thinking about debating is the confusion between the debating activity *per se*, and an alien, exhibitionistic perversion of it—the *contest* or *team* set-up. Bearing this distinction in mind, let me present my case for expanding instruction in debating, not in its pyrotechnic contest phase, but as a classroom activity.

It is generally considered orthodox pedagogical procedure in American and European history courses to conclude the problems of the Industrial Revolution and their attendant solutions, with *debates* on the various topics such as socialism, unemployment insurance, child labor, and the like. This is the policy invariably followed by the better teacher and approved by supervisory officials. It is supposed to result, among other things, in training in "Suspended Judgment" and "Individual Decisions" based on facts and arguments pro and con.[1]

Why is this the case? Obviously, the study of history has sanctions in the modern school only so far as it helps our citizens solve their own problems. Rexford Guy Tugwell, in his latest published essays, said that education must concern itself with the controversial issues of the day. He is in fundamental agreement with the Report of the Social Science Research Group of 1934. If Dewey's dictum about the continuity of the School and Society is to be honored more

[1] High Points "Suspended Judgment in History" by S. Pikholtz, p. 48. Vol. 18, No. 80, Oct. 1934.

in the observance than the breach, it is a truism that the schools should concern themselves with issues of real moment in the society in which these young citizens will find themselves. Mr. Pikholz continues:

> But despite this justification, some teachers are skeptical of the value of this method of asking youngsters to reach a decision which their elders, and even mature students of the subject, are unable to reach. If, perchance, a student should have reached a decision, then we try to confuse him by declaring that he ought to suspend judgment. Inevitably this method not only leads to indecision, but makes a virtue of it.

Here lies the rub. Our teaching apparently makes a fetish of not reaching conclusions—a modified version of the Voltairian doctrine—I will defend to the death your right to think, so long as you come to no conclusions. We contradict ourselves, and expose our own lack of faith in our doctrines. Teaching the virtues of submitting old ideas to new evidence, of the "reconstruction of experience" as education, and of re-examining old ideas in a new light, we nevertheless imply that a decision once made is irrevocable—else why all the furor and fear of having children come to conclusions, albeit tentative ones?

There is a reason for this apotheosis of the virtue of "Suspending Judgment." In my opinion, it is our feeble attempt to counteract the insidious effects of the forces of omnipotent propaganda. Certainly a justifiable effort, yet is it the most effective and honest method of combating the problem?

> Teachers began to wonder whether the refusal of the school to indoctrinate was effective in preventing reactionary indoctrinations, whether a negative non-committal policy was really the best method for inducting the young into the complex of issues and problems of contemporary life.[2]

What can the school do to combat the propaganda menace, specifically in debating? The school's contribution must be to stress its essential bias, a technique of thinking and arriving at conclusions as rationally and as free as possible from the blinding prejudices of contending groups and vested interests.

The question which now naturally arises is, why use debating as the tactic and strategy in this battle to overcome susceptibility to loose, irrelevant billingsgate? The answer is that it is the natural activity in which such thinking must take place, the school counterpart of the contending, prejudiced groups of society, seeking to influence the audience.

Our contribution, however, is made at this point—the way in

[2] Social Frontier, Vol. I, No. 4, Jan., 1935.

which debating is conducted, and the teachers' attitude toward the participants in the debate. Heretofore, we have expended our energies in training eloquent and persuasive speakers to recite glib and meretricious arguments. Let us continue to train people to express their ideas in the most convincing manner of which they are capable, to organize and present material in the best rhetorical style. Continuing our efforts in this direction, let us realize that the members of the audience are very important participants in the debate. With them, our task and socio-educational responsibility begins.

Our real business is with the *individuals* who later will act on the basis of what they hear and believe, as an *audience*. We must therefore train *them* to listen, not to *words*, but *ideas;* to get behind policies, to recognize their implications; to seek their factual background; who sponsors them, and why; briefly, to appraise critically what they hear.

The teacher's attention and concern, in terms of "teaching and planning," must be with the *individuals who listen to the arguments hurled at them* by rival contenders for their support. Here is where debating can make its essential contribution to the democratic process. *Concentrate on the audience*—and arm them with an instrument to winnow the wheat from the chaff.

Teach them to avoid the pitfalls of all undiscriminating listeners. Let them learn to discern bombast and fustian, to seek facts, to recognize the commoner methods of calling a thing a name, and hence relegating it to limbo. Work on the audience until they understand why authorities with different biases disagree; why it is important to search for the source of a quotation; why definitions are all-important.

Let this audience learn to scrutinize every statement that is made. Cause them to discover for themselves what their basic drives to action are—and how these are manipulated by unscrupulous appellants. This audience may come to the point when they believe that they must act only on the basis of selfish interest—but they will grow to understand, too, that true social values and historical perspective make for an enlightened selfish interest. Perhaps they may even get a glimpse of the assumptions underlying all their thinking.

In the classroom, this modification of the program is reflected in the recitation process. The class's attention is directed to an analysis of arguments presented. The subject matter would be classification and illustrations of the various forms of fallacy, appeals to emotion, and generally illogical thinking.

Will these methods of analysis, of critical appraisal, and hesitant acceptance, carry over to life situations?

I do not know. But they are being applied to the crucial problems at hand, so that even if they are never applied again, some advantage will accrue from this study.

How will this knowledge be applied? Listen to any political speech, read any editorial. Analyze thus—does that mean immediate rejection? Not at all—but it means a far more enlightened acceptance of what is to be accepted.

To recapitulate: (1) Debating has been attacked. (2) The attacks have been based on the false assumption that debating is necessarily a team practice, with an indispensable paraphernalia of judges, decisions, etc. (3) The essence of teaching debating should be to train the audience to listen critically and analyze the array of arguments hurled at them in an emotionally surcharged barrage of words. (4) This kind of debating stress is not only educationally justifiable, but socially indispensable.

In conclusion, it is my opinion that debating, instead of being curbed, should have its influence widened as a *classroom exercise* with the essential stress, emphasis, concentration, and attention, given to training the individuals in the audience, in the ability to weigh arguments for purposes of clear thinking.

This would provide training in an activity which is essential for the thriving of a Democratic, co-operative society, and would thus fulfill the highest function of the school as a socio-educational agency.

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# WHAT SHOULD BE OUR OBJECTIVE IN HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING?

EVELYN KONIGSBERG
*Richmond Hill High School (New York City)*

THE proponents of debate tell us that it is an admirable form of speech activity for training students to think clearly and quickly, to collect and sift facts, to acquire poise and adaptability in public speaking, and to achieve ease and power in talking to an audience. Those of us who feel that debating as it now exists in some places is a dangerous and often anti-social form of activity, point out that debate tends to develop in students an attitude of exhibitionism, to foster glibness and insincerity, and to put undue stress upon the element of

competition and the desire to win at all costs. Either one of these sets of things may happen and anyone who has had any experience with student debate must be aware that at times each has happened. To some of us, it seems, however, that from debating as conducted at present, the undesirable results are more likely to occur than the desirable. The question resolves itself, I think, into how we can direct student debating so that we insure the results that seem to us desirable. And that brings us to the question, "What should be our objective in debate?"

If we wish to advertise ourselves and our students through winning debates, we can hardly hope to avoid the evils that are apparent. But it seems to me we can agree that our objective should be an entirely different one. The objective in debate should be, I think, the objective of all sincere speaking: to present effectively one's honest thought upon a subject worthy of common consideration, to persuade a listener to a mode of thinking, to direct his reaction, or to move him to an action which to the speaker seems a fine one.

When we say that certain students or certain schools are to take part in "a debate," we mean that there is to be a public oral expression of ideas of people who have different points of view on a given topic. We usually imply also that there is to be a decision rendered as to which side "wins" the debate. And this decision is to be given almost immediately by a group of judges (competent or incompetent) especially appointed for that purpose.

Right at that point, I think, is where debate has "gone wrong." For in the natural speech and debate of everyday life, the decision is not always—in fact, we may say it is very seldom—made within a few moments, and at times, it is never actually expressed except in a changed form of thought or behaviour. And it is certainly not given by a specially chosen small group whose verdict may or may not express the real reaction of the entire group of listeners. After an evening's debate among friends, there is no public rendition of a verdict as to who "wins," but each member of the listening group, large or small, goes off with a new stimulus to further thought, study or even investigation, and each makes his decision for himself and expresses it in his future living or thinking. That, to me, is what our objective in debate should be: to present effectively a subject upon which there has been honest thinking and to stimulate the members of the audience to further thought and action, each according to his own lights.

But, too often, under our present system of debate, the members of the audience are concerned less with the merits of the subject than with the decision itself. And too often, partisanship and an emotional reaction toward the decision are fostered, rather than a thoughtful consideration of the ideas themselves. On the part of the audience, there is likely to be an attitude of cheering for one's team rather than one of considering both sides of the question.

How can we remove from debating this undesirable element and substitute for it the idea of thoughtful consideration? My answer is: "Let us have debates, if we want them, but no decisions." To me, it is the rendering of an immediate decision and not the debate itself which is likely to result in wrong attitudes.

Now I know that some of those who direct successful debating teams will rise up and protest that when we omit the decision, we kill the vital element in debate. I submit that we may have debate which is pertinent and valuable, and at the same time debate in which there is no decision given. All about us today we find public characters debating in just such a fashion, and we find the public flocking to hear them, even, in many cases, paying an admission fee. We hear of such people as John Haynes Holmes, Rabbi Wise, Louis Untermeyer, Max Eastman, and John Dewey debating everything from politics to poetry. These people speak to large audiences who go, not to see who will win, but to hear both sides of a question and to gain, in this way, a background or stimulus for their own thought and action. And that, I think, is what we should aim for in student debate. I'm well aware, of course, that we cannot expect high school boys and girls to draw the crowds that go to hear well-known speakers, but I think we can and should develop for high school debates, audiences who will go to hear students talk intelligently upon topics with which the students are competent to deal and which are of general interest.

And in so doing, we can, I think, provide for our students a real opportunity for fine training in leadership. If we can so direct debate that our students will realize that there will be no immediate decision as to who is the best speaker, but that the decision is a deferred one and rests with the members of a thoughtful audience, we can make those students realize that when they talk to an audience they must give real value for the audience's time and attention. We can teach students to realize that as debaters they stand forth as leaders and directors of thought and action, and that a real responsibility rests

upon them to put forth their highest and most sincere efforts in order that their influence upon the audience may be a worthy one. And there is no reason why high school debating should not produce such fine results. If our education means anything, it should mean that we are training a generation of students to be, in some measure, better thinkers and leaders than the preceding generation. All about us today we hear educators and public thinkers telling us that the world is looking for leadership tomorrow from the schoolboy of today. One opportunity for training these leaders of tomorrow is through high-grade debate.

If we are to make debating a vital force in the thinking reaction of the audience, we throw upon the director, too, a responsibility for sincerity and fineness in his coaching. If his efforts are to be crowned not by an award at the end of one evening's debate, but by the building up of an intelligent, thoughtful, appreciative audience, we remove the temptation to the director to feature forensic exhibitionism, and give him a real incentive for his finest educational efforts.

To those who feel and say that when we omit the decision, we refuse to meet the challenge of who is best, I answer—"Not at all." When we omit the decision, we must meet an even greater challenge: we must make our debates good enough so that the audience will come to listen to ideas and not to the decision of a few judges who may or may not be really competent.

Debate should not be merely a form of mental gymnastics—a forensic contest substituted for an athletic one. The audience should not be a cheering squad. Debate in actual life situations is the presentation of viewpoints arrived at after careful thought. School debate should be at least as honest and sincere as the informal debate of the untrained speaker. In actual life situations, debate occurs upon topics of real concern to the participants. If we are to make school debates real, vital influences in the lives of speakers and listeners, we must make sure that students are not merely "assigned" a topic and a viewpoint, but we must see to it that students who enter a debate realize the connection of the topic with their own lives, and select their viewpoints after a careful consideration of the facts in the case. In other words, the student debater should speak from his own inner urge, and we should make sure that only those students who are honestly concerned with the topic be allowed a place on the platform. If this seems to limit unduly the topics on which students may debate, or the type and number of students upon whom we may draw, I feel

that we must meet that problem, and as educators direct the reading and thinking of our students so that they are in real contact with a wide range of current topics. We must be ourselves persons of such wide cultural background as to know how to direct our students.

Only when we so condition students that they have an honest, vital concern with the topics on which they are to talk, and with sharing of their ideas with the audience, can student debate be a really stimulating educational influence in the lives of speakers and listeners. Debate, so conditioned, should and can meet a real need for training in leadership and guidance through fine speaking in a real situation. And only when we so condition debate will we have honest, sincere, natural, and effective student speakers and audiences that will respond not to the justice or prejudices of judges, but to the value and significance of worthy ideas.

## HOW SHOULD DEBATES BE JUDGED?

T. EARLE JOHNSON
*University of Alabama*

EVERY speech teacher connected with debating has more than once protested about the scarcity of competent judges. In colleges and universities, we have largely avoided the issue by scheduling no-decision debates. But in our high school debating leagues associated with N.U.E.A., the problem is still an acute one. At least it is in the state of Alabama. At the request of the University Extension Division, I prepared this year a statement on points which had given us most trouble, together with an official ballot to be used in the state preliminary and final debates this year. Several thousand copies have been distributed to the high schools for use by the debaters, coaches and judges in the preliminary debates, and we will use them in the final debates at the University next month. So far we have received an overwhelmingly favorable response to their use.

I now submit the material for wider circulation, with the hope that it will provoke thought and discussion on the merits of the idea involved, as well as on the value of the points discussed.

# INSTRUCTIONS FOR JUDGING DEBATES

Department of Speech
University of Alabama

In judging a debate, one should remember that public speaking and debating have undergone radical changes during the past few years. No longer is the flowery, oratorical style of the past considered the ideal type of speaking. Instead, the speaker should use what is generally referred to as the conversational mode. This style of speaking is based on the speaker's natural voice. It should be characterized by naturalness, directness, and convincingness. Of course the voice should be sufficiently loud to be heard by everyone present, and should likewise possess sufficient range to afford emotional expressiveness.

1. *Voice.* Should be judged on naturalness, clearness, good English, correct pronunciation and enunciation, pleasantness, range and general effectiveness.

2. *Platform Deportment.* Debaters should conduct themselves as ladies and gentlemen, and observe parliamentary conventions while on the platform. Appearance and dress should be neat and in good taste. Ability and feelings of opponents should be respected, hence personalities should be avoided (such as accusing opponents of prejudice or ignorance, or speaking of them in a malicious or sarcastic manner.) Opponents should always be referred to by title ("the gentleman of the negative" or "the previous speaker," etc.), never by name ("Mr. Smith," or "Miss Jones").

3. *Analysis of Question.* Debaters should show a thorough knowledge and understanding of the question and the issues involved. Judges should note overemphasis of irrelevant or immaterial points. In every debate there should be a definite clash of issues. Correct analysis of the question will insure this. The first affirmative speaker should present a full analysis of the question. (The first negative may do likewise, but briefly.) This should include (1) immediate cause for discussion, (2) history and origin of question, (3) definition of terms, (4) exclusion of irrelevant matter, (5) statement of admitted matter, and (6) statement of issues.

4. *Argument.* Each debater should prove certain definite points. This he does by argument or the submission of evidence. Judges should carefully analyze the argument or evidence to determine its soundness and its weight toward the establishment of the case. The sum-total of the points presented by a team should reasonably establish the desirability of the case presented.

5. *Burden of Proof.* The question is so worded as to place the burden of proof on the affirmative. This simply means that the affirmative should advocate the change proposed in the question, while the negative advocates the *status quo*, but *only this and nothing more*. The negative must prove its case just as the affirmative, hence the negative cannot claim the decision merely because the affirmative fails to establish its case. If neither side proves its case, the decision should go to the side which most nearly does so.

6. *Rebuttal.* The purpose of rebuttal is to offer counter argument against

the opponent's case. Important points should be attacked, not unimportant ones. New evidence may be submitted by either side, but only in defense or refutation of arguments previously presented in main speeches. No new points may be introduced or established during rebuttal. Generally, judges consider rebuttal speeches one-third and constructive speeches two-thirds.

7. *Yielding.* One debater should never ask another to yield. The only time it should be permittted by the chairman is when the last rebuttal speaker is flagrantly misquoting an opponent. The opponent should ask the chairman to ask the debater to yield, stating purpose, and should politely correct him. At all other times during the debate the correct procedure is to wait until next speech from that side to make the correction. Since time-out is not usually taken for yielding, the speaker has a perfect right to decline to yield. The act of either yielding or declining to yield should never affect the decision to the slightest extent.

8. *Authority.* Argument by authority is a valid method of establishing a case. Debaters should be careful to use only recognized authorities or should definitely establish a man as an authority before quoting him. When opposite sides present conflicting authorities, judges should impartially evaluate the respective authorities. Debating ethics demands that quotations shall present an exact statement of the authority's views, and not be twisted or given in such a way as to present a misconstruction of his views.

All the points above are significant and should be considered by the judges. However, they are not of equal value and hence the individual judge should determine their respective merit. Since the discussion as above outlined is intended for debaters as well as judges, the material has been considered as merely presenting pertinent information of procedure to both judges and debaters.

For judges who wish a more simplified method of judging, the following grouping of the points listed above is suggested:

1. Voice and delivery
2. Arguments and subject matter
3. Effectiveness and power as a speaker

These as generally used are of equal merit, each considered one-third. However, each judge may give greater weight to one or more, but should never give more than 50% to any one of the three.

## OFFICIAL BALLOT

### For a Judge of Debate

*Important Note.* The judge may fill in grades of percentages for each person or for the team as a whole, or he may use the plus, x, or minus sign to indicate his general opinion on each point, using x for "neutral" or "no particular impression." Generally the constructive speeches count two-thirds and the rebuttal speeches one-third in arriving at the team's total. The three points for judging constructive speeches are intended to be of equal value.

| | Affirmative | | | Negative | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | First | Second | Team | First | Second | Team |
| 1. Voice and delivery | | | | | | |
| 2. Analysis of question, arguments and subject matter | | | | | | |
| 3. Effectiveness and power as a speaker | | | | | | |
| Rebuttal speech | | | | | | |

DECISION

On the basis of the grades and criticism indicated by the markings above, and considering nothing else, it is my decision that, on the whole, the better debating was done by the

_____ _____

Affirmative — Negative

Signed ..... ; Judge

Town ..... Date .....

# EDITORIALS

In his letter of resignation to the Council, Editor Hudson commented that he had little or no reaction from the readers of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL to indicate whether they were pleased or displeased, and very few suggestions for the conduct of the magazine. The present editor is more fortunate. Already numerous comments and suggestions, all of them generously constructive, have made their advent.

* * *

The first to arrive will meet instant approval. It is a suggestion for more accurate proofing of material in phonetic symbols. All too obviously, there has been great inaccuracy here. The copy is usually good, but is hand-written; but printers, not being phoneticians, cannot follow such copy. Moreover, they cannot follow proof-readers' marks on this type of material well enough to eliminate all errors in one round of correcting. Indeed, they usually make a few fresh errors instead. It takes at least a second proofing and correcting to produce anything like accuracy.

* * *

Accordingly, we are now asking the printers to send proof of all considerable phonetic transcription simultaneously to the author and to the editor. The author is to correct his copy and forward it to the editor, who will collate the corrections, send them in, *and then receive a second set of proof sheets for final correction.* This more careful process ought to improve our product.

* * *

Meantime we can only apologize to Professor Wilke (even though he has made no complaint) because on page 194 of the April JOURNAL, in his article "An Efficient Test of Diction," the diphthongs [aU] and [oU] have been misprinted as [av] and [ov]. The apology ought, of course, to reach backward over many issues, where phonetic symbols have almost made a rule of going wrong. We wish that apologies could correct the misinterpretations which foreign scholars must make on encountering such errors—and the even more damaging interpretations which researchers will make many years hence when our pages become authority for what will in the 25th century correspond to Doctors' dissertations.

We may be encouraged by the fact that our publishers have most promptly agreed to add all necessary new phonetic symbols to their type-fonts. So those of us who have been exasperated by the substitution of a pharmacist's symbol for [ʒ], Greek alpha for [ɑ], and Arabic numeral 3 for [ɜ], etc., etc., this will be a real boon.

* * *

Another correspondent suggests that our authors try to write, if not less profoundly, at least more readably. He pleads for surcease from dullness, from academic display, and from over-wrought vocabulary.

* * *

Still another correspondent expresses approval of articles growing out of research, and suggests more of these.

* * *

And yet another says that he dropped his membership some years ago because he got too little help in the problems of his school teaching, but that a year ago he became a member again with profit.

* * *

Most complete of all commentaries on the JOURNAL is the very comprehensive analysis by Professor Knower, *"Twenty Years of the* QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH." Editors and contributors should study this analysis most closely and digest thoroughly its impersonal yet sympathetically interpreted data. On the basis of these data we can for the first time see how to guide the JOURNAL with entire consciousness of the precise paths and directions it has already been following.

* * *

Professor Knower's discovery that Charles H. Woolbert still holds the record for contributions to the JOURNAL suggests the propriety of pausing to remember that genial war-horse, untimely gone away from us. How he loved a good "scrap"! How his eyes flashed on the convention floor! How his pen scintillated on the pages of the JOURNAL! How he labored to give to teachers of speech a consciousness of themselves as proponents of a separate, complete, and necessary academic discipline! How he must have sworn by all his peppery, kindly gods to put scholarship where there had been superficiality; science where there had been quackery; truth where there had been insincerity; an army of well learned teachers where there had been a horde of sappers and parasites! How he would jubilate now at the weathering of the depression crisis and the having

emerged stronger and more numerous for the battle! There were giants in those days, and he was one of them. Most of them are with us yet—*Gott sei Dank!* But his passing took away a peculiar essence we may never replace. No shoulders among us are shaped exactly for the wearing of his fallen mantle. We ought to seek equivalent ways to do the things he would be doing—equivalent, if not for sentiment and memory, then for the maintenance of the very integrity of the house we live in. For without Charles Woolbert, the study of Speech, precisely as we know it, would never have been. From the fifteen articles scattered through the volumes of the JOURNAL, we may capture again the zest of his strenuous genius.

* * *

This issue contains suggestions by Professor O'Neill for modifications in ASSOCIATION government. Calmly given, these suggestions will no doubt be calmly received. The ASSOCIATION has probably evolved out of the emotional instability that characterized its era of *The Young Turk Rebellion,* which began with the organization of regional associations unable instantly to decide whether to be rivals or to co-operate with the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, and which culminated with the exciting times at the last Chicago Convention. If we consider these proposals judiciously, it will be well; if we debate them hotly, it may be just as well—*¿Quien sabe?* But in any case, remembering the lively problems in parliamentary practice superbly met by President Dolman in those tense Chicago business meetings, we suggest to President Williamson to brush the dust off *Robert's Rules of Order.*

* * *

Should there not be some commentary on Professor O'Neill's plan in the *Forum* of the November JOURNAL?

# TWENTY YEARS OF *THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH*

FRANKLIN H. KNOWER
*University of Minnesota*

THE November, 1934, issue of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH marked the completion of the first twenty years of the publication of the official organ of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH. As an official publication, its major purpose is to provide a medium for the discussion of matters of communal interest. Leaders in the direction of our activities have selected manuscripts for publication in its pages which were considered most reflective of the varied interests and activities of the members of our group. Moreover, the articles published may be considered representative of the scholastic activity of the membership. To any member who might take issue with this assertion, it can be said that to the extent the statement involves an unwarranted assumption, the situation reflects not upon the organization, but upon the member contesting the assertion. The study of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH here reported was undertaken with the idea of ascertaining certain facts regarding the sources and nature of the articles published. Wherever it seemed significant, the data have been analyzed by five-year periods in order that developments in the field might be noted. The data thus may be said to reflect, in a collective way, not only the publication activities of various members and groups of members within our society, but also the interests and changes of interest of its members.

In its twenty years of publication, 695 articles have appeared in THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL. Of this total number of articles, 668 have been submitted by single authors, 19 have been submitted by two or more persons in joint authorship and 8 have appeared anonymously or as the publications of committees. In all, THE JOURNAL has published articles under a total of 707 signatures. Table I presents the names and frequency of contribution of the fifteen leading contributors, and the frequency of contribution by others whose articles have been published. In addition to the fifteen who have contributed six or more articles to THE QUARTERLY, twelve persons have contributed five articles each, twenty persons have contributed four articles each, thirty-two have contributed three articles each, forty-nine have contributed two articles each and 242 have contributed to THE

QUARTERLY but once. THE JOURNAL has published in all the contributions of 370 different members of the association. This does not include work in the articles signed "Committee," which appeared in eight cases.

TABLE I

PERSONAL SOURCES OF CONTRIBUTIONS

| Number of Articles | Names and Frequency of Contribution of Leaders and Frequency of Contribution of Others |
|---|---|
| 15 | Woolbert, Charles H. |
| 13 | Hunt, Everett L. |
| 13 | Smith, Bromley. |
| 11 | O'Neill, James |
| 9 | Crocker, Lionel. |
| 9 | Gray, Giles W. |
| 8 | West, Robert |
| 7 | Blanton, Smiley. |
| 7 | Drummond, Alex. |
| 7 | Howes, Raymond F. |
| 7 | Merry, Glenn. |
| 7 | Rowell, E. Z. |
| 6 | Bullowa, Alma. |
| 6 | Dolman, John. |
| 6 | Graham, Gladys. |
| 5 | Twelve Contributors. |
| 4 | Twenty Contributors. |
| 3 | Thirty-Two Contributors. |
| 2 | Forty-Nine Contributors. |
| 1 | Two Hundred Forty-Two Contributors. |

Perhaps the most significant figure to be obtained from these data is that over 65% of the members of the ASSOCIATION who have contributed to THE QUARTERLY have contributed only once. At the other extreme we have the name of Charles Woolbert, who contributed fifteen articles. In spite of the fact that his masterly contributions to our work were unfortunately limited largely to the first ten years of THE JOURNAL, he still towers among us as the outstanding contributor.

Table II presents data on the names and frequency of contribution from the twelve leading collegiate institutions in the study of speech problems, and the frequency of contribution from other institutions. The number of institutions making contributions totaled 133, and 72 of these institutions, or about 54%, contributed two or more articles. The number of articles contributed from collegiate institutions totals 555. The twelve leading institutions contributed 45% of all the articles coming from the colleges, and 36% of all the articles published in the QUARTERLY.

Table III presents data on the institutional sources of articles, when sources could be determined, by five-year periods. The top

TABLE II

SOURCES OF COLLEGIATE CONTRIBUTIONS

| Number of Articles | Names and Frequency of Contribution from Leading Institutions and Frequency of Contribution of Others. |
|---|---|
| 43 | University of Wisconsin |
| 36 | University of Iowa |
| 34 | Cornell University |
| 26 | University of Michigan |
| 18 | University of Illinois |
| 15 | University of California |
| 15 | University of Minnesota |
| 15 | New York University |
| 13 | Northwestern University |
| 12 | Hunter College |
| 12 | Princeton University |
| 11 | University of Pittsburgh |
| 9 | Four Institutions |
| 8 | One Institution |
| 7 | Five Institutions |
| 6 | One Institution |
| 5 | Nine Institutions |
| 4 | Eleven Institutions |
| 3 | Twelve Institutions |
| 2 | Seventeen Institutions |
| 1 | Sixty-one Institutions. |

TABLE III

GENERAL SOURCES OF CONTRIBUTIONS

| Period | Public School Systems | High Schools | Colleges | Miscellaneous | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1915-19 | 2 | 16 | 129 | 18 | 165 |
| | (1.2) | (9.7) | (78.2) | (10.9) | |
| 1920-24 | 3 | 15 | 107 | 22 | 147 |
| | (2.) | (10.2) | (72.8) | (15.) | |
| 1925-29 | 2 | 11 | 144 | 14 | 171 |
| | (1.2) | (6.4) | (84.2) | (8.2) | |
| 1930-34 | 15 | 18 | 180 | 19 | 232 |
| | (6.5) | (7.7) | (77.6) | (8.2) | |
| Total | 22 | 60 | 555 | 73 | 715 |
| | (3.8) | (8.4) | (77.6) | (10.2) | |

figures in each instance indicates the number of articles and the bottom figure in parenthesis, the percentage of the total number of articles in the period coming from that particular source. It is probable that the figures on the college group represent quite accurately the actual proportion of articles coming from that source, while many of the articles listed as Miscellaneous in source may have come from teachers or administrators in school systems. Even when we give the public and high school groups the benefit of this doubt, it is improbable that these groups have contributed more than 15% of the articles published. The percentage of articles coming from each division remains fairly constant by five-year periods for all groups

except the Public School group. There was a fairly large increase in representation from this group during the last five-year period.

The data were next analyzed to determine the regional sources of contributions by classifying the sources according to regional groups paralleling the organization of the country into regional Speech Association groups. Table IV presents the results of this analysis and shows that over 45% of the articles have come from the Mid-Western region, and over 78% of the articles have come from the East and the Mid-West.

TABLE IV

REGIONAL SOURCES OF CONTRIBUTIONS

| Region | Colleges | Other Sources | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| East | 186 | 51 | 237 |
| | (78.4) | (21.6) | (33.1) |
| Mid-West | 272 | 51 | 323 |
| | (84.2) | (15.8) | (45.2) |
| South | 26 | 9 | 35 |
| | (74.3) | (25.7) | (4.9) |
| West | 71 | 25 | 96 |
| | (74.0) | (26.0) | (13.4) |
| Miscellaneous | | | 24 |
| | | | (3.4) |

Table V indicates the sex of various contributors. We see that men have contributed about 75% of all articles published. The percentage remains fairly constant, as the data are analyzed by five-year periods.

TABLE V

SEX OF CONTRIBUTORS

| Period | Men | Women | Miscellaneous |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1915-19 | 127 | 34 | 4 |
| | (77.0) | (20.6) | (2.4) |
| 1920-24 | 102 | 44 | 1 |
| | (69.4) | (29.9) | (.7) |
| 1925-29 | 131 | 39 | 1 |
| | (76.6) | (22.8) | (.6) |
| 1930-34 | 172 | 58 | 2 |
| | (74.1) | (25.0) | (.9) |
| Total | 532 | 175 | 8 |
| | (74.4) | (24.5) | (1.1) |

I have heard critics of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL complain that it contains relatively little material of value to the teachers in our elementary and secondary school systems; and it is evident here that a relatively large percentage of the contributors are from institutions of the collegiate level. In an attempt to determine whether or not any large proportion of the articles are devoted to material which has significance only for college teachers of Speech, I have classified the articles on the basis of the extent to which they were apparently

prepared for and of value to any special group of our members. Table VI records the results of this analysis. These results would indicate that there is at least as much, if not more material published in THE QUARTERLY for the direct benefit of high school teachers than is published for the direct benefit of college teachers. The greatest proportion of the material has had to do with general aspects of

TABLE VI

CONTENT VALUE FOR SPECIAL GROUPS

| Period | Grades | High School | College | Miscellaneous |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1915-19 | 1 | 19 | 29 | 113 |
| | (.6) | (11.7) | (17.9) | (69.8) |
| 1920-24 | | 22 | 13 | 110 |
| | | (15.1) | (8.9) | (76.0) |
| 1925-29 | 2 | 9 | 12 | 145 |
| | (1.2) | (5.4) | (7.2) | (86.3) |
| 1930-34 | 18 | 15 | 3 | 184 |
| | (8.2) | (6.9) | (1.4) | (83.5) |
| Total | 21 | 65 | 57 | 552 |
| | (3.0) | (9.4) | (8.2) | (79.4) |

speech, and has needed interpretation and application by any group looking for material to meet its own special needs. Although a large proportion of the material published has been prepared by college teachers, it does not appear that this fact justifies the contention that THE QUARTERLY has been a magazine for college teachers.

The articles were next classified according to the major divisions of subject matter in the field of Speech treated in the discussion. Any such classification, of course, cannot be rigidly exclusive, in that the content of articles frequently involves more than one sub-field, but it is possible to obtain an approximate classification into the following six major divisions. The first division was devoted to "Fundamentals" and included the sub-fields of action, voice and articulation, language and diction, personality and a miscellaneous fundamentals group. The second division, entitled "Rhetoric and Public Address," comprises material on the history of oratory and public address, theories of rhetoric, speech organization, persuasion, etc. The third division was devoted to "Oral Reading and Story Telling." The fourth division articles dealt with "Dramatic Literature and Production Problems." The fifth division includes all articles on "Speech Pathology." And the last and sixth division was broadly devoted to "Speech Education" and included articles on courses and programs, theories and methods in speech education, contests, and articles on the professional problems of teachers of Speech. Although the figures presented in Table VII present the data for the six main divi-

sions only, the figures in some cases will be analyzed in discussion into the sub-divisions named. Of the 132 articles comprising the Fundamentals group, 12 dealt with action in speech, 56 with voice and articulation, 26 with language and diction, 12 with personality, and 27 with general fundamentals problems. Of the 67 articles devoted to dramatics, 18 articles dealt with dramatic literature and the other 49 with some phase of dramatic production. In the group of

TABLE VII

CONTENT TREATED IN ARTICLES

| Period | Fundamentals | Rhetoric and Public Address | Oral Reading Story Telling | Dramatics | Speech Pathology | Education |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1915-19 | 25 | 13 | 8 | 18 | 12 | 86 |
| | (15.4) | (8.1) | (4.9) | (11.1) | (7.4) | (53.1) |
| 1920-24 | 35 | 19 | 6 | 8 | 11 | 66 |
| | (24.1) | (13.1) | (4.1) | (5.5) | (7.6) | (45.6) |
| 1925-29 | 37 | 31 | 6 | 23 | 9 | 62 |
| | (22.) | (18.5) | (3.6) | (13.7) | (5.3) | (36.9) |
| 1930-34 | 35 | 44 | 18 | 18 | 17 | 93 |
| | (16.) | (20.1) | (5.9) | (8.2) | (7.8) | (42.) |
| Total | 132 | 107 | 33 | 67 | 49 | 307 |
| | (19.1) | (15.4) | (4.7) | (9.7) | (7.) | (44.1) |

307 articles in the division of education, 50 articles presented courses or programs, 78 discussed theories and methods in Speech education, 76 dealt with various aspects of speech contests, and 103 were devoted to the professional problems of speech educators. Table VII indicates clearly that THE QUARTERLY is largely a journal devoted to the general problems of Speech education, with problems of the fundamentals of speech and rhetoric and public address receiving considerably more attention than any of the other sub-fields.

Table VIII presents a classification of the articles according to the nature of the method used in securing data for the article. Although the method of classification used here is admittedly arbitrary and in no sense definitely evaluative, it does serve to focus attention on kinds of material offered for publication, a matter which the

TABLE VIII

METHOD USED IN SECURING DATA

| Period | Experiments and Experimental Technique | Report of Activities | Research in Literature | Surveys and Bibliographies | Theoretical Discussion |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1915-19 | 1 | 28 | 7 | 16 | 110 |
| | (.6) | (17.3) | (4.3) | (9.9) | (67.9) |
| 1920-24 | 7 | 18 | 17 | 10 | 93 |
| | (4.8) | (12.4) | (11.7) | (6.9) | (64.2) |
| 1925-29 | 21 | 10 | 35 | 15 | 87 |
| | (12.5) | (6.) | (20.8) | (8.9) | (51.8) |
| 1930-34 | 22 | 13 | 33 | 15 | 137 |
| | (10.) | (5.9) | (15.) | (6.9) | (62.2) |
| Total | 51 | 69 | 92 | 56 | 427 |
| | (7.3) | (9.9) | (13.2) | (8.1) | (61.5) |

writer believes worthy of consideration. Two facts, it seems to the writer, stand out in this chart. One is that although the percentage of the total number of articles for which the data have been prepared by experimental methods is much greater during the last ten years than it was during the first ten years, the scientific method apparently even now interests but a relatively small percentage of our numbers. The other fact demonstrated by this chart is that over 60% of the articles published in THE QUARTERLY are of a highly theoretical nature. Although some of this material no doubt has its value, the author considers it unfortunate that editors of THE QUARTERLY have found it necessary, no doubt at least partially through limitation of offerings, to publish so much of this kind of material. When the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION was organized over twenty years ago, one of the announced four major purposes of the organization was to publish a journal and another was to stimulate research. The first of these objectives was immediately realized; the second seems to be gaining headway, if one may judge its progress on the basis of the articles published in THE JOURNAL, to say the most, rather slowly. The large percentage of space devoted to theoretical discussions during the early years of our official organ might be excused as necessary filler while research programs were being organized, but to find as the years go on that it is still necessary to publish filler rather than facts indicates a need for a greater emphasis on one of the major purposes of our society, that is, the stimulation of research.

# THE FORUM

*Editor of the* QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

The Nominating Committee elected at the New Orleans Convention of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH reports the following nominations:

*President:* Maud May Babcock, University of Utah.

*First Vice-President:* W. Hayes Yeager, George Washington University.

*Second Vice-President:* Ellwood Griscom, University of Texas.

*Members of the Council:* I. M. Cochrane, Carleton College; Elizabeth D. McDowell, Teachers College, Columbia University; Louise Blymyer, Berea College; J. Edmund Mayer, High School, Topeka, Kansas.

(Signed)

A. Craig Baird
H. P. Constans
Lionel Crocker
H. L. Ewbank
C. M. Wise, *chairman*

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*Editor of* THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Phonetic frequencies in formal speech and in Colloquial Speech have been experimentally ascertained at the Bell Technical Laboratories, the study having been based on telephone conversations.[1] I have made a similar count in the Phonetics Laboratories at the Ohio State University, based on formal radio announcements.[2]

In colloquial speech [ɪ] occurs about two-fifths less frequently than in formal speech. This might be taken as an actual weakening of vowel sounds, not only in the case of [ɪ], but also in the case

[1] N. R. French, C. W. Carter and W. Koenig, Jr., "The Words and Sounds of Telephone Conversations," *Bell System Technical Journal*, IX, (Apr., 1930), 290-324.

[2] Charles H. Voelker, "Phonetic Distribution in Formal American Pronunciation, *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, V, 4 (Apr., 1934), 242-246.

of other vowels, since in colloquial pronunciation the indefinite obscure vowel [ə] occurs one-third more frequently. As to other vowels, it was found that in formal style [æ] and [ɔ] occur one-fifth more frequently, and the strong vowel [u], one-fifth less frequently.

The use and disuse of consonants were found to be in definite correlation with the colloquial and formal styles. Colloquial speech used almost half again as many of the consonants [j], [θ], and [z], two-fifths more of the [w], one-third more of the [ʍ], [g], [v], and [k], and one-sixth more of the [t]. The formal style utilized one-fifth more of the [r], [f], [b], and [ʃ], and one-third more of the [s] and [m] speech sounds.

It may be that the differences in the average frequency of occurrence of the phonetic elements in the two styles of speech, as indicated above, account for some of the differences perceived when one is listening to and comparing formal utterance on the one hand and more intimate pronunciation on the other.

Charles H. Voelker, *Capitol College*

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*Editor of* THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

At an informal special meeting of the Executive Council of THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH held at the Hotel Victoria, New York City, April 27, 1935, the following proposals were advanced for the guidance of THE ASSOCIATION and its President for the remainder of the current year and for the next annual convention at the Hotel Stevens in Chicago, December 30, 31, 1935, and January 1, 1936.

It was generally accepted that a current problem of major importance to teachers of all subjects—Speech not excluded—is that of curricular changes. The Council deemed it wise to strengthen all committees of this ASSOCIATION whose function it is to bring to the attention of existing educational associations, particularly to high schools and elementary schools, the fundamental educational values of Speech and its specialized form, Public Speaking, in order that these subjects may not be lost sight of in the general revision of elementary, secondary, and junior college curricula.

The Council further decided that problems of curricular revision be a major consideration in the drafting of this year's annual program. It was further considered expedient, since all education is at the present time being put through a process of evaluation of fundamental worth in the light of current educational philosophies, that

in this year's program the various policies and philosophies upon which teachers of Speech base their procedures be critically examined, challenged and defended—this examination involving scholarship, publications, and the practices and functions of each field within our general field.

The Council further suggested that, as preliminary to the December program, for the purpose of stimulating discussion at the Convention, a number of provocative articles having to do with current problems heretofore mentioned might well be published in the November QUARTERLY.

It was concluded that the Council, in considering detailed committee reports and minor legislation, has had too little time in its meetings to ponder over general problems and general questions of policy. It was therefore decided that this year the committee chairmen submit mimeographed copies of their annual reports no later than November 30 for distribution to members of the Council; and that at the annual meeting only a brief period of time be allotted each committee chairman for proposal of action on the reports (which shall have been considered by the individual Council members prior to the Convention).

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*Editor of* THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

In the last few years, various members of our ASSOCIATION have expressed a desire to see some changes made in the machinery and form of government of our NATIONAL ASSOCIATION. A number of such expressions have appeared in the QUARTERLY JOURNAL; others in private conversations, letters, committee meetings, public addresses.

Such statements have usually been based upon a desire to diminish the opportunities for (or possibly suspected tendencies toward) the dominance of divisional or institutional groups, or inadequate or unbalanced representation of divisions of the field of Speech, sections of the country, or educational levels.

I am submitting here a detailed proposal for the reorganization of our ASSOCIATION government. This is submitted simply as a suggestion which, if it interests members of the ASSOCIATION, may be taken as a starting point and perhaps be worked into something that the ASSOCIATION would adopt.

I offer it with the following statements of opinion or belief which I now hold:

That this statement ought to help—simply as a definite proposal that can

be considered, discussed, evaluated, and dealt with in whatever way seems good to the members of the ASSOCIATION;

That with a membership of 2,161 (QUARTERLY JOURNAL, Feb., 1935, 150) our ASSOCIATION is too large to transact its business properly on the principle of direct democracy on the town meeting plan, or through our present modifications of that plan;

That voting by mail which might supplement existing machinery is likely to be careless, cumbersome, and expensive;

That I can offer this suggestion without running the risk of being accused of trying to increase the representation or influence of the geographical section, the division of the field, or the institutional level to which I belong, since in each of these classifications I already belong to the group having much the largest representation in our government;

That the following tables—of the membership of the present Executive Council—show it to be not well balanced in the matter of proper representation of the various sectional, divisional, and institutional groups in our ASSOCIATION;

That any similar tabulation of the personnel of our ASSOCIATION government at any time in the last ten years will show substantially the same thing.

There is, of course, nothing final or binding in my allocation of the members to the various subdivisions in the following tables. I invite each reader to shift any names which he thinks are not properly placed. Some can clearly be listed in more than one column in the divisional table, for instance. In all such cases, I have tried to list such names in a way to minimize the disproportional representation. I have resolved each case of doubt in the way that seemed to me to bring out the maximum strength *against* my thesis. If, for example, I have felt that a given name could be justly listed in either Rhetoric and Public Speaking or in one of the other divisions, I have in each such instance listed it in one of the columns that had fewer names in it.

The following tables show the distribution of our present Executive Council as given in the front of the February, 1935, QUARTERLY JOURNAL.

*Geographical Distribution*

| *Eastern* | *Middle* | *Western* | *Southern* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Dolman | Barnes | Bassett | Constans |
| Drummond | Borchers | Bietry | Wise |
| Hudson | Brigance | Immel | 2 |
| Parrish | Cortright | Smith | |
| Prentiss | Densmore | Stebbins | |
| Wichelns | Ewbank | 5 | |
| Williamson | Layton | | |
| Zimmerman | Miller | | |
| 8 | Simon | | |
| | Travis | | |
| | Weaver | | |
| | West | | |
| | 12 | | |

*Institutional Distribution*

| *Grades* | *High Schools* | *Teachers Colleges* | *Colleges* | | *Universities* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | Bietry | | Barnes |
| | | | Brigance | | Bassett |
| | | | Constans | | Borchers |
| | | | Layton | | Cortright |
| | | | Miller | | Densmore |
| | | | Parrish | | Dolman |
| | | | Prentiss | | Drummond |
| | | | Stebbins | | Ewbank |
| | | | | 8 | Hudson |
| | | | | | Immel |
| | | | | | Simon |
| | | | | | Smith |
| | | | | | Travis |
| | | | | | Weaver |
| | | | | | West |
| | | | | | Wichelns |
| | | | | | Williamson |
| | | | | | Wise |
| | | | | | Zimmerman |
| | | | | | 19 |
| | | | | Total | 27 |

*Divisional Distribution*

| *Rhetoric, Public Speaking* | *Interpretation* | *Theater* | | *Voice Science, Phonetics* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Barnes | Bassett | Constans | | Smith |
| Bietry | Parrish | Dolman | | Wise |
| Borchers | Prentiss | Drummond | | Zimmerman |
| Brigance | Stebbins | | 3 | 3 |
| Cortright | 4 | | | |
| Densmore | | | | |
| Ewbank | | | | |
| Hudson | | | | |
| Layton | | | | |
| Miller | | | | |
| Wichelns | | | | |
| Williamson | | | | |
| 12 | | | | |

| *Psychology and Pedagogy* | *Speech Disorders* | |
|---|---|---|
| Immel | Travis | |
| Simon | West | |
| Weaver | | 2 |
| 3 | Total | 27 |

I submit that the government of THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH is, to too great a degree, a government by Middle Western University teachers of Rhetoric and Public Speaking. This has, in my opinion, come about as a natural result of the development of our field and of our ASSOCIATION. It has come about without any trickery, conspiracy, or evil scheming on the part of any person or any group of persons. I submit, nevertheless, that it is now time that our ASSOCIATION (following the example of other societies of similar size and type) move on to a properly integrated, federated

system of government, based on fair representation of all sections, all divisions of the field, and all educational levels.

To the membership of the ASSOCIATION I therefore submit the following suggestions for the reorganization of the government of THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.

1. *The Executive Council* shall consist of four groups of representatives and officers. Total about 70 to 80. Quorum 40.

2. *Group One. Official:*

| | |
|---|---|
| President | |
| First Vice-President | |
| Second Vice-President | All for the term of their |
| Executive Secretary | respective offices and three |
| Editor of QUARTERLY JOURNAL | years thereafter |
| Editor of Research Studies | Total—15 to 18 |

3. *Group Two. Geographical:*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Eastern | 4 | Terms four years—one to be |
| Western | 4 | elected each year. |
| Southern | 4 | Total—16 |
| Middle | 4 | |

4. *Group Three. Institutional:*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| I. | Grade Schools (teachers, supervisors, clinicians, etc.) | 4 |
| II. | High Schools (Junior and Senior, Academies, Preparatory) | 4 |
| III. | Teachers Colleges (Normal Schools, Training Schools) | 4 |
| IV. | Colleges (and strictly Undergraduate Departments of Universities) | 4 |
| V. | Universities, Graduate Schools (Research Institutes, Educational Foundations) | 4 |

Terms four years—one to be elected each year.
Total—20

5. *Group Four. Divisional:*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| A. | Rhetoric and Public Speaking | 4 |
| B. | Interpretation or Oral Reading | 4 |
| C. | Theater Arts | 4 |
| D. | Voice Science and Phonetics | 4 |
| E. | Psychology and Pedagogy | 4 |
| F. | Speech Disorders | 4 |

Terms four years—one to be elected each year.
Total—24
GRAND TOTAL—75-78

6. *The Executive Council* to elect all officers, direct all business, have all responsibility, exercise all authority; create committees, hear reports, pass resolutions; *except* as it may ask any Annual Convention, Regional Meeting, or Sectional or Divisional meeting to vote, give information, or express opinion; and *except* for referenda on all amendments to Constitution and By-laws, and on appeals.

7. *Amendments* to be (1) printed first in QUARTERLY JOURNAL not less than one month nor more than six months before meeting at which action is taken (date to be mentioned in printed announcement); (2) passed by a two-thirds vote of the actual membership of the Council—expressed in a regular meeting, or by valid proxy, or by mail vote—failure to vote inside of one month after submission by mail to be counted a vote in the *affirmative;* and (3) ratified by a referendum of all members, by printed ballot to be carried in each of three successive issues of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL by a two-thirds vote of actual membership—failure to vote within one month after issue of third notice to be counted as an affirmative vote.

8. *Regular meetings* of the Executive Council to be afternoon and evening of the day preceding each annual convention, and afternoon of the last day. Other meetings to be called by the President. Quorum 40.

9. *Officials* elected from the membership of the ASSOCIATION at the Regular meeting of the Council on the last afternoon of the Convention. The officers of the ASSOCIATION to be the officers of the Executive Council.

10. *Geographical Representatives* to be elected by the regional organizations—in any manner chosen by them.

11. *Institutional Representatives* to be elected by a series of meetings called for this purpose alone, all meeting at the same hour—no other meeting of any kind called for the same hour—at 9 a.m. to 10 a.m. of the second day of the annual convention. Voters in each meeting may be required to show membership cards in the ASSOCIATION indicating membership in the Institutional Group in which they are voting. Every member of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION being required to choose membership in *one* only of these Institutional Groups.

12. *Divisional Representatives* same as Institutional Representatives above at 2 p.m. to 3 p.m. of the second day; every member of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION being required to choose membership in *one* only of these Divisional Groups. Every member to have a membership card which will show his membership in one of the Institutional Groups and also in one of the Divisional Groups, as: II-B, III-C; or V-F, etc.

13. *Membership* in divisional groups, and in institutional groups where there is an opportunity for a choice, is to be entirely at the option of the individual member, to be exercised each year on the payment of the membership fee in the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

14. *Single Membership in the Executive Council.* No one may serve on the Council in two capacities—as a representative of a Regional Group and also as a representative of a Division of the field, for instance—so that there would never be less than around 75 different persons members of the Executive Council.

15. *Annual Report* of all actions and decisions of the Executive Council to be submitted to the members in printed form each year.

16. *Appeal from any Action* or decision of the Council to be made in either of two ways:

a. Initiated by a majority vote of any Annual Convention;

b. Initiated by a signed request of 100 members.

17. *All appeals* to be printed in the QUARTERLY JOURNAL with ballot for voting. Executive Council to be overruled by a majority vote of the total mem-

bership at the close of the voting—one month after the issue of the notice. Failure of any member to vote to be counted as a vote to sustain the Executive Council.

18. *Re-elections:* No officer or representative shall be eligible to immediate re-election—that is, to succeed himself in any particular post, except the Executive Secretary; but any person may at any time be elected to the Council in any way that does not make him his own successor in a specific post. For instance, on expiration of a term as representative of a Regional Group, Mr. X may be elected to the Council as representative of a Divisional Group, or of an Institutional Group, or as an officer.

J. M. O'NEILL,
*University of Michigan*

Note: By direction of the Executive Council, Dr. A. T. Weaver has compiled the latest version of our Constitution and By-Laws, embodying therein all modifications to date. It had been intended that this form of the Constitution and By-Laws be published in the November JOURNAL, for ready reference at the 1935 Convention. In view of Professor O'Neill's communication, however, it would seem that publication in this issue is indicated, so that the new proposals and the present practices may readily be compared.

—Editor.

## CONSTITUTION

### ARTICLE I

*Name*

Sec. 1. The name of this Association shall be THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.

*Object*

Sec. 2. The object of the ASSOCIATION shall be to encourage high standards of study, of scholarship, and of teaching, in the various phases of Speech.

### ARTICLE II

*Officers*

The officers of this ASSOCIATION shall be:

President
First Vice-President
Second Vice-President
Executive Secretary
Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH
Editor of Research Studies
Members of the Executive Council.

### ARTICLE III

*Executive Council*

Sec. 1. The Executive Council shall consist of: the President, the Executive Secretary, the Editor of the JOURNAL, and the Editor of Research Studies for the term of their respective offices and for three years thereafter; twelve members, elected at large, four each year, for a term of three years; the Vice-Presidents; the President, or his representative, of the Western Association,

of the Southern Association, of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference, of the American Speech Correction Association, and of such other regional or special associations or federations as may hereafter be officially recognized by the Executive Council.

Sec. 2. Regular meetings of the Executive Council shall be held each year on the evening preceding, and at noon of the last day of, the national convention. Other meetings may be called by the President.

Sec. 3. The Executive Council shall be the ultimate authority in all matters relating to the ASSOCIATION in the periods between conventions, and it shall direct the policies and administer the affairs of the ASSOCIATION, except as otherwise provided in the constitution and by-laws; its decisions, however, shall be subject to mandate or revision by a majority vote of any two consecutive annual meetings of the ASSOCIATION.

Sec. 4. The President of the ASSOCIATION shall be president of the Executive Council.

### ARTICLE IV

*Duties of Officers*

Sec. 1. The President shall prepare the program for the national convention, preside at all business meetings of the ASSOCIATION and of the Executive Council, and represent the ASSOCIATION before other academic organizations. He shall consult with the Executive Secretary in the formulation of any plans involving the expenditure of any considerable sum of money.

Sec. 2. The First Vice-President shall assist the President and perform the duties of the President on occasions of the latter's disability or absence.

Sec. 3. The Second Vice-President shall perform whatever specific duties may be assigned to him by the Executive Council or President.

Sec. 4. The Executive Secretary shall perform all the ordinary duties of Secretary and Treasurer of the ASSOCIATION. He shall also serve as Business Manager of the JOURNAL. He shall be responsible to the Executive Council and shall furnish them with a complete annual financial report. If the Executive Secretary wishes additional authority when the Executive Council is not in session, he may proceed with the permission of the President and Editor.

### ARTICLE V

*Membership*

Sec. 1. Membership in this ASSOCIATION shall be open to any teacher of Speech upon application.

Sec. 2. The Executive Secretary shall grant membership to any other applicants upon written recommendation by any other two members of the Executive Council.

### ARTICLE VI

*Amendments*

Sec. 1. Upon recommendation of the Executive Council, this constitution may be amended at any annual meeting, a quorum being present, by a two-thirds vote, absentee votes being counted; upon recommendation of any ten members of the ASSOCIATION, this constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote at any two consecutive meetings, a quorum being present, and absentee votes being counted; provided in each case, however, that before a vote may

be taken upon any proposed amendment, said amendment shall have been published in at least one number of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL. To secure publication, the proposers of the amendment shall send typewritten copies, properly signed, to the President and to the Editor at least six weeks prior to the first day of the month of desired publication.

Sec. 2. For the purpose of absentee voting upon any proposed amendment to the Constitution, or upon any question which the Executive Council, or any ten members of the ASSOCIATION, wish to present to the membership of the ASSOCIATION for a vote, a ballot containing the amendment or the question at issue shall be enclosed in, or printed in, an issue of the JOURNAL previous to the national convention. To be counted as valid, the ballots must be marked, signed, and returned by mail to the Executive Secretary on or before a day and hour specified by the Executive Council and printed on the ballot.

## BY-LAWS

### ARTICLE I

*Election of Officers*

Sec. 1. The President, Vice-Presidents, and four of the twelve members of the Executive Council to be chosen at large shall be elected by the ASSOCIATION at each convention.

Sec. 2. Nominations for this election shall be made by a committee of five chosen in the following manner: Without nominations from the floor the tellers shall distribute blank ballots on which each voter shall place the names of five members of the ASSOCIATION who are eligible to serve on the committee. No one shall serve on the committee more than once in three years. No ballot containing more or fewer than five names shall be counted. The five members receiving the highest number of votes shall constitute the committee, the one with the largest plurality being chairman. Any ties in the voing shall be broken by the President.

Sec. 3. The nominating committee shall be elected one year in advance and shall print its report in the QUARTERLY JOURNAL in the June issue just preceding the annual convention at which the elections are to be held. The committee shall propose one or more names for each office. Additional nominations, upon the signed petition of any fifteen members in good standing in the ASSOCIATION, will be accepted and will be published with the names of the petitioners in the November issue of the JOURNAL, provided the petition has been submitted six weeks in advance of the date of publication. No member may become a candidate for office by nomination from the convention floor, or in any other manner than that provided herein.

Sec. 4. Only members in good standing shall be eligible to nomination for office in the ASSOCIATION. The nominating committee shall submit its nominations to the Executive Secretary for certification as to the membership of nominees, before publication in the JOURNAL. Nominations by petition also shall be subject to this certification procedure.

Sec. 5. Whenever there are more nominations than one for any office, the Executive Secretary shall arrange for a mail ballot, open to all individual members. All votes shall be returnable to the Executive Secretary, postmarked on or before December 10.

Sec. 6. The Executive Council shall have the power to fill vacancies in the announced list of nominees and among officers.

Sec. 7. The Editor of the JOURNAL shall be elected by the Executive Council for a term of three years. He shall be elected one year in advance of his term of office and shall sit *ex officio* as a member of the Council for the year following his election.

Sec. 8. The Executive Secretary shall be elected by the Executive Council for a term of three years.

Sec. 9. The President and Editor shall be ineligible to succeed themselves.

Sec. 10. When an Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH takes office all other positions on the editorial staff should automatically be vacated, leaving the incoming Editor free to organize his staff. The Editor shall consult with the Executive Secretary on all matters involving considerable expenditures.

## ARTICLE II

### *Dues*

The dues for regular membership in the ASSOCIATION shall be $2.50 a year, payable in advance. The sum covers membership in the ASSOCIATION and subscription to the JOURNAL. The dues for a sustaining membership shall be $10.00 a year, payable in advance. The sustaining membership includes membership in the ASSOCIATION, subscription to the JOURNAL, and, in addition, all other ASSOCIATION publications issued within the period covered by the membership. A fee of $1.00 shall be paid by each person in attendance at the national convention.

## ARTICLE III

### *Meetings*

National conventions shall be held each year at a time and place to be designated by the Executive Council.

## ARTICLE IV

### *Committees*

Sec. 1. The Executive Council shall elect a Research Committee, the chairman of which shall hold office for three years and act as Editor of Research Studies.

Sec. 2. Other committees may be appointed by the Executive Council, the President, or the Executive Secretary.

## ARTICLE V

### *Quorum*

Sec. 1. A quorum at any meeting of the Executive Council shall be eight members.

Sec. 2. A quorum of the ASSOCIATION shall be one-fourth of the members registered at the national convention.

## ARTICLE VI

### *Amendments*

These by-laws may be amended by a two-thirds vote at any meeting of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

# NEW BOOKS

*Jeremiah Sullivan Black.* By William Norwood Brigance. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1934; pp. xii, 303; $3.50.

Jeremiah Black has been fortunate in his biographer. A secretary of state under Buchanan, he is just the sort of historical figure that might have been raked up by an unemployed novelist during the recent fad for popular life stories and exploited as a misunderstood or forgotten hero. Professor Brigance shows fully, carefully, and often brilliantly, that Black was one of the great forensic orators of American history, a bold and successful defender of the Constitution at a time when the mob, in a spirit of vengeance, seemed bent on destroying it forever; that in what Claude Bowers has called the tragic era of Reconstruction, few set themselves so straight or difficult a course and fewer still had the courage and tenacity to remain true to their beliefs in the face of popular clamor. Yet the entire story is told without a trace of sentimentality. This book is, in the very best sense, a critical estimate; and Jeremiah Black needs nothing more.

The history of the years leading up to, including, and immediately following the Civil War is a fascinating bog that has mired many a biographer. So tempting are the bypaths that frequently what begins as the story of a man's life ends as another prejudiced history of his times. Professor Brigance has not yielded to temptation. The necessary historical background is there, but always subordinated to the central figure. The reader never loses sight of Black himself as this clear-headed, hard-hitting Pennsylvania lawyer rises to the Supreme Court of his state, to the Federal posts of attorney-general and secretary of state, and then, his career in public office at an end as the Republican Party assumes control, ascends to even higher planes of public service as an advocate before the Supreme Court and adviser to President Johnson. Professor Brigance convincingly demonstrates that his great speeches in the Milligan, McArdle, and Slaughterhouse cases, to single out only the most important, significantly affected the course of American history. Black stands

side by side with Johnson as one of the men who prevented the Congress of the Reconstruction era from becoming more than a temporary destroyer of American liberties.

This book, however, is more than an excellent biography. It is a critical analysis of a public speaker. And as such it has extraordinary interest for students of rhetoric. Literary criticism of oratory has been a topic of continuous, serious discussion since Professor Wichelns outlined the problem in the *Winans Studies* ten years ago, and a committee of THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH is now planning a series of critical studies of American public speakers. A question that can therefore be legitimately asked is whether Professor Brigance, in his work on Black, has not discovered and applied a satisfactory method of treatment.

There can be little question, I think, that he has selected the appropriate topics and considered them from the correct point of view. His eye is always on the speaker's immediate problem and the effectiveness of the solution. But he compromises, in technique, between dramatic presentation and static analysis. In other words, he had to decide whether to present a series of dramatic episodes, each complete in itself, describing the speaker, the audience, the occasion, the actual speech, and its results, or to consider all the important speeches together and draw general conclusions as to the effect of the speaker's personality, reputation, rhetorical strategy, and style. He decided to do both, but has done neither with the greatest possible effectiveness.

For example, Chapter 20, "Ex Parte Milligan," is dramatic in intent, yet the drama is played without a stage and without stage directions or makeup. Edward Marjoribanks, author of *Carson the Advocate*, would have sketched the faces and figures of the members of the Supreme Court, commented on the size of the room, the state of the plaster on the walls, and the freshness of the air, would have described Black's entrance to the room, his voice, his gestures, and any special eccentricities, and would have followed the reaction of the audience throughout the trial, both in the courtroom and in the press. Professor Brigance omits nearly all of these details. Several can be gleaned, however, from Chapter 28, "A Personal Sketch." There we learn for the first time that Black, when addressing the court, wore a red-brown wig above his shaggy white eyebrows, fumbled constantly with a silver tobacco box while speaking, and habitually walked up and down the room shooting streams of tobacco juice, with

great precision, into a spittoon. Of his famed "magnetic eye" and his lack of any extraordinary vocal quality we learn in Chapter 30, "The Forensic Orator."

For the purpose of static analysis, the distribution of these details among later chapters is admirable. Yet somehow these analytical chapters taste flat after the dynamic story of intense intellectual struggle over the fate of the nation. Perhaps that is inevitable in any study that attempts both to recreate the scene and to give a formal analysis of the orator's work. If Professor Brigance has failed to wring the final ounce of drama from his dramatic scenes, he has at least done more wringing than one has any right to expect from a scholar. He has produced a book that gives both intellectual excitement and conclusive judgments. It touches a high water mark in American studies of orators.

RAYMOND F. HOWES, *Washington University*

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*A Course Book in Public Speaking.* By W. E. GILMAN and BOWER ALY. Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Co., 1934; "mimeoprint," 10⅞"x8⅜"; pp. 50.

This *Course Book* is a students' manual, to be used, along with basic text-books, in classes in extemporaneous speaking that meet three times a week for a semester. Its form is that of an amplified day-by-day assignment book. Included in these daily directions are explanations of the nature of the work to be done in class, interpretations of the matter assigned in other sources, supplementation of principles in text-books, and various other kinds of assistance. A brief preface explains the use to be made of the book. An appendix sets forth the general objectives and nature of the course (and, incidentally, provides an admirable statement of the educational philosophy by which many modern teachers of public speaking are guided). Consistently, throughout the book, the authors address the student and no one else.

As it is a students' guidebook to assignments, we should expect that any new principles offered would be only incidental. The chief aspects revealed by it are the pedagogical values, and the nature of the course for which it is a manual. The distinguishing features of the latter are these:

> The emphasis in this course is placed on giving the maximum opportunities for practice in preparing and giving original, extemporaneous speeches, so far

as that practice is consistent with their intellectual worth. (The use of the *Course Book* is a means to that end, in that it frees the class hour from much time spent in assignments and in discussing the text-books.)

Six important speeches to be made by all students are the culmination of other exercises in speaking and writing: one narrative, two expository, two argumentative, one final speech.

Preparation for speaking is conceived as twofold: (1) speech construction, involving a thorough study of principles, from choice of topic and gathering of materials to adaptation to audience; (2) cultivation of effective delivery, through the study of principles, frequent practice in discussion, the delivery of the six prepared speeches, and especially by the delivery of a selection ("declamation," in the best sense) which has been very thoroughly studied and practiced. Of these two aspects, the first, speech construction, receives somewhat more space in the manual, and, presumably, in the course.

The class is formed into a Public Affairs Club, and throughout the term, discusses controversial subjects, drawn from assigned reading, but under parliamentary rules of procedure.

The *Course Book* is to be considered as a text-book, to be studied and examined on the same basis as other text-books.

Little attention is paid, at least judging from the manual, to speech style and composition in the limited sense; the students are assumed to have had a college course in English composition.

The text-books required of the class, and to which the *Course Book* is a guide and a supplement, are Winans' *Public Speaking*, (1917) and Reeves' *Parliamentary Procedure*. (It is difficult to see how the book could be used with another text-book than Winans; indeed, it would be awkward to use it with the recent revision of Winans.)

The quality most noticeable in this book is its thoroughness. The explanations for assignments are clear and definite, the procedure is methodical, the supplementation is apt and usually adequate. Some exceptions are: more sample topics might well be sprinkled through the chapters on choice of topic, and expository and argumentative speeches; some useful general patterns of analysis might be included in the section on argumentative outlines; and rhetorical plans should have been explained and illustrated. But, after all, something may be left to the class hour.

More than one contribution to the theory of public speaking is foreshadowed. One important example of this is the section on "Expository Outlines." The treatment of this troublesome subject and the example given are among the best of their kind. Part of the section on "Adaptation to Audience" is also on this high level.

Some of us doubt the wisdom of imposing parliamentary procedure on group discussion of controversial subjects, when that discussion is intended to stimulate the invention of topics, and prefer to

keep the training in parliamentary law in a separate part of the course. But this controversy can hardly be germane to a review of a manual; moreover, those who disapprove of the union could easily divorce them and still use this manual.

Some will feel that, at least in some parts, the *Course Book* is *too* thorough. One is somewhat depressed, in fact, to find so much information on "how to use the library" and kindred topics. And some may feel that the intellectual preparation required of students is more work than may be expected from them. But it is hardly too much to expect from *good* students; and if it is, one can always assign less. At least, one can make a choice of assignments here; it will not be necessary to supplement this book.

RUSSELL H. WAGNER, *Cornell University*

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*Modern Drama.* By J. W. MARRIOTT. London and New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, Ltd., 1934; pp. 327.

Written as a textbook, probably for English secondary schools, *Modern Drama* has a pleasant, moral, provincial tone that makes it delightful if not particularly enlightening to the American reader. Mr. Marriott is such a charming optimist that one happily agrees with him that the theatre today "has reached a standard which has never been surpassed except, perhaps, by the Elizabethans," although perhaps not quite so willing to admit that "the simile of Cinderella leaps to the mind."

One has a contented, virtuous feeling, too, after having joined in a belated song of praise for T. W. Robertson, a Briton who paved the way for Ibsen, but who has never been justly treated because he was British. There is something homey and comforting about the lines, "English dancers, we are told, have had to adopt Russian names before they could win recognition, and English musicians know only too well that an English name is often a disadvantage in their native land."

And does Mr. Marriott put Ibsen in his place? Doesn't he just! "The doctrine of individual liberty is popular today . . . But it is not so simple . . . The right to live one's own life includes the right to go wrong; otherwise it is meaningless. . . . Again, this doctrine of non-interference should logically abolish all such movements as are represented by the Bands of Hope, Watch Committees, Censorships, Public Health visitors, Anti-tobacco Leagues, and a thousand other agen-

cies for supervising the lives of others." And, in general, "we cannot agree that tragedy is the final word. . . . When things go wrong with English people, whether with the plain Tommy in his dugout in Flanders, or with the poor Cockneys in Dickens, they are invariably saved by their unquenchable humour. . . . Courage triumphs over hardships, and humour laughs at them."

This is John Bull himself speaking, and his comments on Shaw, Barrie, Granville-Barker, Galsworthy, and lesser British lights have a sort of freshness that adds considerable interest to the book. But when John Bull steps off the island, he begins to falter and stumble. He can cover his tracks, at least for the average American reader, fairly well so long as he rambles through Ireland, Germany, and France; but when he skips, in imagination, to the other side of the world and attempts to stroll jauntily along Broadway, he becomes a pitiful figure indeed. "Miss Zoë Akins," says he, with a twist of the monocle, "wrote *A Royal Fandango, The Greeks Had a Name for It*, etc., but she is best known to the general public through a film version of her *Morning Glory*, with Miss Katherine Hepburn in the leading role."

Question No. 1 to be asked the pupils after reading the chapter on "Recent American Drama" is, "Give the names of any celebrated poets, essayists, and novelists, and say what they wrote." Mr. Marriott was undoubtedly wise to add six other questions to fill the hour. And probably the best answers will come from question No. 3, "Read *Annie Christie*, and discuss Greta Garbo's interpretation of the character."

RAYMOND F. HOWES, *Washington University*

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*Improving Your Speech.* By LETITIA RAUBICHECK. Illustrated by Charles W. Raubicheck. New York: Noble and Noble, 1934; pp. 163.

Here is a book that should be an invaluable aid for teachers in the intermediate grades of the elementary school. The book presents an accurate analysis of the sounds of English and it is so arranged that it may be used by pupils trained in phonetics or those who use diacritical markings. The lessons are arranged according to a unit plan with an attractive illustration to motivate each lesson. There is a much needed section on the principle of English intonation. The book contains diagnostic tests and rating sheets that should make it of great practical value.

It is one of the most helpful books in the elementary level that has come to the attention of this reviewer and it is to be recommended whole-heartedly.

DOROTHY I. MULGRAVE, *New York University*

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*The Bride of Quietness and Other Plays.* By OSCAR W. FIRKINS Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1932; pp. 241; $2.
*The Revealing Moment and Other Plays.* By OSCAR W. FIRKINS. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1932; pp. 302; $2.

The eleven plays of the late Professor Firkins presented in these two volumes have their sources in literature rather than in life. Keats, the Brownings, the Brontés, Samuel Pepys, Chekhov, Ibsen, Dumas, Sophocles, their friends and associates are the players, and episodes, either real or imaginary, in their careers furnish the plots. Yet so acute is the author's sense of drama and so deft his literary touch that he seems to have gone behind the books rather than to have used them as material.

Only a professor, perhaps, would have the audacity to write a poetic play on the composition of the "Ode to the Grecian Urn," intermingling his own verse with that of Keats. Oscar Firkins, in the "The Bride of Quietness" has not only dared to do it, but has done it with success. And in the same volume he presents a comedy involving Samuel Pepys, Charles II, their wives, and mistresses, that will tickle the palate, if not satisfy the appetite, of any sophisticate.

These plays, for many years, should enrich the repertoires of amateur theatrical groups, especially in schools and colleges. They have the flavor of learning without a trace of dullness, and should appeal particularly to student audiences who, like even the movie audiences, seem to be tiring of what at one time seemed an unending succession of pictures of life in the raw.

R. F. H.

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*The American Theatre As Seen by Its Critics 1752-1934.* EDITED BY MONTROSE J. MOSES and JOHN MASON BROWN. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1934; 391 pp. $3.75.

This generous selection of excerpts from writers on the American theatre would be noteworthy if only as the last work of a pioneer in the study of the American drama and theatre. Mr. Moses and his younger collaborator, who is also recognized as a dramatic critic and

scholar, have, however, here entered a portion of this field hitherto neglected, and have interestingly suggested its resources.

The editors have wisely and necessarily refrained from the attempt to make this anthology a history, either of the theatre or of theatrical criticism in America. Selections are arranged according to authors, and the authors appear in an order approximately chronological. This plan is generally satisfactory, though it is somewhat disconcerting to find John Barrymore's Hamlet and Augustin Daly's company cheek by jowl. The critics represented wrote mainly in New York, and of performances there, New York being rightly considered the "distributing agent and the theatrical capital of America." Reviews have been chosen not only to represent their writers in characteristic vein but also—and herein lies much of the book's value—to show the typical theatre about which they wrote. The intention explained by Mr. Brown in his introduction is carried out: to present the emergence of an American theatre through the first-hand impressions which criticism written in immediate relation with performance conveys. As a fresh and lively record of what often becomes dull in the pages of the historian (of whom Mr. Brown speaks with a commiserating disparagement perhaps born of fellow feeling), the work will appeal both to the historian and to the average theatre-lover.

The inclusive plan of *The American Theatre As Seen by Its Critics* carries us from "Candour's" recognition of virtues in our first social comedy, *The Contrast*, to an appraisal of "The Constant Sinner—Mae West." It reveals interestingly the *New York Herald's* recommendation of 1852 that *Uncle Tom's Cabin* be withdrawn "as a firebrand of the most dangerous character to the peace of the whole country," and, a half century later, William Winter's fiery animadversions on the subject of Ibsen. Booth, Coquelin, Salvini, Mrs. Leslie Carter, and Hampden are some of the actors who pass in review. The balance between discussion of plays and interpreters is well kept, and changing fashions in action and production receive desirable attention. Roughly, not quite one-sixth of the text is given to commentary before 1850, and about half of the articles deal with the theatre after 1914. Whatever one may think of the relative literary value of drama in the various periods, this proportion seems to give scant measure to the earlier American theatre, especially since the book deals with the theatre rather than with the drama proper. The aims of the editors require appreciation of what is included rather than objection to what is omitted, but one may ask if it might not have

been better to include more of the less easily available earlier criticism and set aside some of the more recent reviews for later reprints.

One may also question the inclusion of excerpts drawn from books of memoirs and other critical discussions, of tendencies and dramatists written in leisurely retrospect. To be sure, such excerpts supplement and interpret facts and ideas presented in the reviews, but they tend to obscure the mood of first-hand impression which is so large a part of the book's purpose. A more systematic and limited collection might be less suggestive and stimulating than this combination of materials. At the same time, if proof was needed that there is a body of theatrical criticism to which such an approach would be profitable, that proof has now been given.

Careers of critics having always been elusive, the brief biographies of the writers represented in the book form a valuable feature of the appendix, and look forward, also, to a type of study which should be undertaken. It seems worth noting that of the fifty critics named, approximately one-half have college degrees, and that about half of those degrees were granted at Harvard. No other school is widely represented. On the whole, the "literary" and professorial critics are leaned on rather heavily, but Sime Silverman and Jack Conway of *Variety*, and Walter Winchell find their places also. A chronological list of the contents is another helpful part of the appendix, though page references are not given. The absence of an index also attests the popular nature of a book which will serve a scholarly need as well.

HENRIETTE C. NAESETH, *Augustana College*

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*Teaching Speech in Secondary Schools.* By LETITIA RAUBICHECK. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1935; pp. 291. $2.00.

"If this book plays any part in the improvement of speech education in the secondary schools of America, it will have accomplished its aim." With these words the author closes her preface to what is, in the opinion of this reviewer, a most significant contribution to the fast accumulating literature on speech and speech education. It may be predicted that so modest an objective as this will scarcely fail of accomplishment.

Of texts on subject matter there are scores, of varying degrees of excellence, covering almost every phase of speech from pantomime to pathology, and aiming at the acquisition of knowledge, the development of skills, and the correction of both minor and major

disorders. In most colleges and universities giving "majors" in speech, courses are offered in the teaching of speech. But the present book is, to my knowledge, the first "attempt to present materials and techniques which will enable a teacher, adequately trained in subject matter, to develop in students of secondary school age those skills in communication which are an essential part of preparation for modern life."

One phrase in the above quotation is especially to be noted: "adequately trained in subject matter." The book makes no attempt to give a series of specific and rigid methods and procedures which will enable the untrained teacher to handle speech classes; on the contrary, it is predicated on a three-fold hypothesis:

"1. The teacher must know his students.

2. The teacher must know his subject.

3. The teacher must know how to teach the subject to the students."

The author has been consistent throughout in relating the various aspects of speech to the problem of teaching. Almost every chapter includes a number of pertinent "Problems for Thought and Discussion," and a well-chosen bibliography. The "Classroom Procedures" given in many chapters are well-selected and sufficiently varied that no rigidity in method need be felt. Furthermore, enough general discussion of the principles involved in teaching such phases of speech as Oral Interpretation, Public Speaking and the like, are presented to awaken the initiative and originality of the teacher in formulating exercises and procedures of her own.

It is to be expected that many controversial questions should arise, as to objectives, subject matter, and method of presentation. For the most part the author has treated these fairly, presenting the evidence on both sides (or more), and leaving the choice of viewpoints to the students. In a few instances, however, she has become argumentative, notably in the discussion of "Standard English" and of Debating; and these instances impair somewhat an otherwise eminently balanced treatment of the whole subject of the teaching of Speech.

In the treatment of pronunciation she quite obviously begs the question of "Standard English versus provincial dialect," assuming that whatever does not conform to the one must *ipso facto* be classed under the other rubric. With regard to localisms, one may well inquire, What is the extent of a "local habitat?" If a dialect is acceptable in inverse proportion to the acreage covered, then certainly the

least acceptable form in America is that commonly (and erroneously) designated by the term "Standard English." And if, as Henry Sweet is quoted as saying, "The best speakers of Standard English are those whose pronunciation and language generally, least betray their locality," then the so-called "Standard English" must be ruled out at once, for it is rarely heard in America outside a very small area along the Atlantic seaboard north of Long Island Sound. So far as this latter point is concerned, why should anyone be chagrined if people discover that he was born in Iowa, went to college in Illinois, and spent most of his life west of the 75th meridian?

With reference to the speech of the General American area, there may be cornraisers in some parts of America who refer to themselves as "kɒnɹeˌrīzəz," but not in Iowa, nor Illinois, nor anywhere else west of the Hudson River. Putting such a pronunciation into the mouth of a Middle-Western farmer—even a highly educated one—is amusing, to say the least.

In phonetic transcription, it is unfortunate that the publishers had no better symbol for the (Eastern) vowel in "word" than the Arabic numeral "3."

With regard to debating, another subject on which the author becomes argumentative, it is likely that many of the evils described have been prevalent, and are still found. The fact remains, however, that debating in secondary schools is on the increase; in more than thirty states this year the question of Federal Equalization of Educational Opportunity is being discussed. It seems unlikely that if the activity possessed "fatal weaknesses in the eyes of modern educators," it would be showing the tremendous growth that it has shown during the past decade. Granted that debating, and the "coaching" of debate, leave much to be desired, it hardly seems just to condemn the activity because it is often abused.

The Klinghardt system of markings is recommended as a means of indicating intonation patterns. As a matter of fact, it is little if any better than the one devised by Joshua Steele more than a hundred and fifty years ago.

A few errors of fact creep in, particularly in the chapter on "Physical Aspects of Speech." For example, ". . . the action of the voice is essentially the same as that of any stringed instrument, inasmuch as the sound is the result of the friction of tightly drawn strings." (p. 36). And, further, "The vocal bands vibrate in the same way as all strings; that is, they not only vibrate as a single

string throughout their whole length, but they also vibrate in partials, each of which has its own characteristic pitch." (*Idem.*) Nor is it quite true to say that all factions are agreed upon the four beliefs with respect to breathing, enumerated on Page 31, particularly the fourth, namely, that "The region of greatest activity should be about the middle of the torso. . . ."

The book has so many excellences, however, that it may be mere caviling to single out these points. Even the experienced teacher will find in it many valuable suggestions; the beginner will find it especially helpful. And if, as the author suggests, the book presupposes a knowledge of the subject, the well-grounded novice will have gained sufficient discrimination to avoid being misled in those few instances in which the author presents material at variance with that knowledge.

Partly because it is the first of its kind, but even more because it contains so much that is good, *Teaching Speech in Secondary Schools* should be on the desk of every teacher and every prospective teacher of speech in the secondary schools—and many of the rest of us may find in its pages much for thought and profit.

GILES WILKESON GRAY, *Louisiana State University*

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*Syllabus in English for Secondary Schools, Grades 7-12.* State Education Department, Albany, N.Y.: University of the State of New York Press, 1934; pp. 299.

*On Teaching English,* By H. F. SEELY. New York: American Book Co., 1933; pp. xix, 391; $1.60.

*The Teaching of High School English.* By VIRGINIA J. CRAIG. New York: Longman's Green, and Co., 1930; pp. xi, 372; $180.

These three books are alike in that all are written for high school English teachers. They all give considerable space, moreover, to Oral English—much more than previous works of their kind. The first two devote one-sixth of their pages to it. They are also alike in that all have much sounder ideas of the nature of Speech and all have more advanced notions of the methods of teaching oral discourse than their predecessors. They vary considerably in degree of soundness and in other respects.

The relation between Speech and English is more definitely stated in the *Syllabus* than in the other two books. In the introduction to the long chapter on "Oral English," we are told that a large propor-

tion of the time in English classes in secondary schools must be devoted to the development of effective speech; that "trained teachers of Speech are making a vital contribution through special courses in Oral English." "It is unreasonable, however, to place the whole burden of improving oral expression upon these specialists. Teachers of Speech, teachers of English, and administrators widely agree that teachers of English, far more than in the past, should definitely assume responsibility for providing in their regular classes training for all pupils in normal, day-to-day speech activities."

The makers of the *Syllabus* proceeed, then, to recommend two distinct modes of Speech Training. First, the regular teachers of English are to include in their work all the instruction necessary to enable high school students to meet the *normal* speech situations of everyday life. Second, special courses are to provide, not for the masses, but for *individuals*, who need or will benefit from them: (1) correction of speech defects, (2) work in "voice, enunciation and posture," (3) "elective courses in the fields of public speaking, literary interpretation, and dramatics." Presumably these special courses will be given by teachers of Speech and Public Speaking, though the report is not explicit on this point. It does say that the correction of serious speech defects should be attempted only by the carefully trained.

*The Teaching of High School English* implies that oral work in high school is to be altogether in the hands of the English teachers. Some footnotes refer to the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH and to one or two articles written by teachers in our field and appearing in other journals. But the text itself does not mention any oral training not given by regular English teachers.

Profesosr Seely is somewhat more knowing than the author of the work just mentioned, but less forthright than the writers of the *Syllabus*. He looks for a continued growth in the Oral Composition courses in high school. He says it is worthy of "more uninterrupted and intelligent development in organized education than it has received in the past." He himself divides his book into three parts, of which "Oral Composition" is one. He also tells us that the recent "enriched Oral Composition and Speech programs," being innovations, are like a new horse that "is being given a bit of riotous riding," "galloping in a radius somewhat larger than he is entitled to; a radius considerably larger than was originally laid claim to." He wishes to prevent the "vitiation of oral composition at the hands of enthusiastic but none-too-thoughtful propagandists."

This last remark may or may not be a hit at recent attempts to increase work in Speech in high schools. Professor Seely's only references to the existence of Speech as such in the secondary schools do not shed much light. He indicts "the more formal and formidable species of oral performance, oratory and debating," long in the curriculum, on the grounds that they trained only a few, and those few not really in oral activity but in written composition, combined with memory drill and "physical gymnastics." But he includes among his evidences of the changed attitudes toward oral composition," the establishment both in high schools and colleges, of Speech departments, whose functions and responsibilities embrace a much broader field than did the Public-Speaking course of only a few years ago." But he expects even vocal training and the correction of speech defects to be a part of the English teachers' work, adding, in parenthesis, "unless, of course, the school possesses a separate Speech department." After a spirited attack on training students "for the purpose of delivering set addresses," he says, in parenthesis again, "I do not mean, of course, that public-speaking work of a prevocational nature should not be an elective subject in the curriculum. It obviously has its rightful place."

But we may judge more fully of what these writers consider to be the province and functions of separate courses in Speech, by noting what is to be included in Oral English; the residue will, presumably be allotted to our branch. All of these writers stress, much more effectively and continuously than their predecessors, the importance of communication and those aims and standards of speech growing out of it which are emphasized in *Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools;* (it is noteworthy that this book is not mentioned by any of these writers except by the authors of the *Syllabus,* and there only as a reference for work in oral reading and discussion). The aims and objectives set for Oral Composition and Oral English are almost identical with the aims of Speech Training and Public Speaking in general as set forth by the Committee on Courses for Secondary Schools, in 1925.

The *Syllabus* recommends for the 7th and 8th grades such speech work as exercises in voice and pronunciation, conversation, oral reading, dramatization, telephoning, discussion, conducting a club, story telling, "broadcasting," reports on books and other subject-matter; for the first two years in high school, making announcements, oral vocabulary, sentence and paragraph drills, interviews, narrative

and expository talks; and for the last two years, special occasion talks, formal discussion, persuasive and expository speeches.

Professor Seely divides the speech work into three groups. First is the speech training to be given by *all* teachers in high school, from those in science to those in manual training. Students are to be trained in socialized recitations, class discussions, oral reports or demonstrations, talks on or dramatizations of celebrated events. (How these teachers are to be able to instruct students correctly the author does not say. It is especially perplexing in view of the fact that he feels that many oral English teachers are incompetent teachers and practitioners of their subject.) Second, in the English classes other than Oral Composition, and especially in literature courses, there should be training in effective oral reading of poetry and drama; the memorization and delivery of poetry, drama, speeches, and essays "of the Macaulay type"; discussion of books, oral reports, oral analysis and criticism of literature; and an informal kind of book-reviewing. Third, there is the work of the oral composition classes themselves, with some fifteen kinds of oral work including "favorite subject" speeches, expository talks, anecdotes, story telling, the conducting of clubs, class speech contests, and, with some misgivings, after-dinner speaking and debating. Conversation, except in the incidental form of motivated discussion, is excluded. Improvement in poise, mental, physical, and vocal, and of pronunciation, and the correction of speech defects, are, of course, included.

Professor Craig would provide training in narrative and descriptive speeches, talks on literature, education, politics, sociology, rhetorical analysis of one's own compositions, oral reports, conversation, after-dinner speaking, the conducting of a club, oratorical contests, and debating. She discusses pronunciation and diction in her book, but not in the chapter on "Oral Composition." No mention is made of speech disorders or of voice improvement.

Add to this that all the authors deal with motivation, selection of topics, methods of preparation, modes of delivery, and the principles relevant to the types of speaking above, and we have a fair idea of the extent to which they have levied on the field of Speech and Public Speaking. There is no mention, in these books, of Dramatics; (but text-books on Oral English and courses in the teaching of English usually deal more or less with it). There is lack of agreement here as to the competence of English teachers to correct speech defects. With these exceptions, and perhaps that of Interpretative

Reading, every important phase of our subject, however broadly conceived, has been taken over into English.

As to the methods of teaching Speech which, in these books, can hardly be separated from the methods of Oral Discourse, there is not much uniformity here. All stress motivation, training in listening, and co-operation with other departments. The *Syllabus,* mainly concerned with what to teach rather than how, is soundest of the group as regards the methods it suggests. Thus, it is the only one to maintain that for beginning students, discussion of what the speaker said is better than criticism of how he said it. Professor Craig's views on standardized speech, on outlining, on impromptu speech ("extemporaneous," in her words), and on the methods of preparation and standards in general, are all sound. Her treatment of Debating and Oratory is questionable indeed.

Professor Seely's discussion of methods is fuller, more iconoclastic, more hazardous than the others. It is good to see him emphasize *thinking* as a main objective of Oral Composition, and to see him attack garrulity and glibness. It is stimulating to see him rout conversation, as sometimes described and recommended for speech courses. He is best on attack. He weakens perceptibly when he comes to describe what to include and how to teach it. His definition of pronunciation, his conception of the Expository Speech and of Debate, his inclusion of speech contests, and part of his advice on outlines, the use of notes, and preparation in general, are open to question.

From what has been said, a number of conclusions may be drawn. First, judging from these books, an enveloping movement on the part of English composition in high school, is annexing most of the content of Speech Training and Public Speaking, including the aims and objectives, and the term "speech" itself. This is being done on one of two bases, either that all expression, written and oral, is in the province of English, with "non-normal" speech alone left to elective courses or clinics, or that, since this must be done by some one, it must be done by English teachers where there is no speech department,—that is to say, almost everywhere.

Second, the conceptions of Speech Training and of orality now current in our field, expressed in terms devised chiefly by teachers of Speech, have been adopted and made leading ideas in Oral English.

Third, there is the assumption that teachers of English, if possessed of certain innate abilities, can teach all that is included in oral composition as outlined above, with no special training in Speech.

"Every teacher of English should be a teacher of Speech," is, to some, still the motto, as it was in Stratton's *Teaching of High School English.*

Fourth, the methods of teaching Oral Composition are not in agreement with each other, are extensive without being adequate, and at some points are erroneous.

RUSSELL H. WAGNER, *Cornell University*

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*The Psychology of the Audience.* By H. L. HOLLINGWORTH. New York: American Book Co., 1935; pp. 232; $2.50.

Twenty-eight years after the publication of Scott's *Psychology of Public Speaking,* another American psychologist has concerned himself with the problems of audience behavior and produced a survey of the available facts. By contrast with the earlier volume, there has been less reliance on data from laboratory experiments presumably applicable to the speech situation, with corresponding emphasis upon the more solid material resulting from experimental studies of actual audience behavior. Professor Hollingworth's book might be considered an outline of the science of public speaking, as opposed to the more numerous manuals designed to give instruction in public speaking as a practical art.

The scope of the book may be judged from the chapter headings, which read "Preliminary Analysis," "Types of Audiences," "A Typical Situation," "Securing an Audience," "Holding the Audience," "Impressing the Audience," "The Psychology of Persuasion," "Directing Action," "The Auditorium," "The Influence of the Audience," "Experimental Studies of Audience Effects," and "The Psychology of Stage Fright." The approach is that of the experimental psychologist, testing generally-accepted principles and looking for new facts on the basis of controlled observation rather than by the historical or anecdotal method. The success of this approach at the present time can, of course, be no greater than the available fund of knowledge permits. Any feeling the reader may have regarding the incompleteness of our knowledge of audience psychology is shared by the author, who emphasizes in the preface that this book represents the present state of affairs, admittedly sketchy, and not the last work on the subject.

Professor Hollingworth concedes at the outset that there are many details peculiar to a specific situation or to a specific performer

concerning which an exact psychology is hardly possible. He proposes therefore to examine the more "general features which characterize the relation of any performer to the relatively few types of audiences" (p. 11).

The five fundamental tasks or steps involved in influencing an audience are described as attention, interest, impression, conviction, and direction. (The word "impression" is used in the sense of securing retention.) Attention and interest are treated as topics integrally related to the speaker's other problems, rather than as important but somehow external matters. Following this analysis of fundamental problems, a chapter is devoted to a consideration of each. It is in the first two of these, concerning the securing of attention (Chapter V) and the maintenance of interest (Chapter VI) that a paucity of experimentally verified facts is most apparent. The author draws chiefly upon the literature concerning laboratory studies of attention to simple stimuli, and the generalizations which resulted from these studies. Apparently there have as yet been few direct studies of audience behavior to throw more detailed light on the attention-compelling value of typical variables in speech technique.

The chapter on instructional techniques reviews a considerable number of experimental studies and summarizes the evidence. The use of visual aids, the use of moving picture films to supplement instruction, the relative efficacy of various modes of emphasis, the results of different methods of using the voice and the value of climax and anti-climax order are some of the topics concerning which factual material is presented. The conclusions presented in this chapter bear upon generally accepted principles of informative speaking.

As the basis for a psychology of persuasion, the author attempts to delineate the average man, in order to choose from among widely discrepant views as to what the average person is like, and consequently, how he is to be influenced. An interesting picture is drawn, on the basis of data concerning the American army during the World War. For some reason, the author has omitted, with a single exception, the numerous experimental studies of social attitudes which have appeared during the past several years. It would seem that a discussion of these studies would be of value in considering the available knowledge of typical attitudes and beliefs, the effectiveness of various forces which act upon these attitudes, and the possibilities

in recently devised measuring techniques for a more complete psychology of persuasion.

*The Psychology of the Audience* is written in a readable style. There is a summary at the end of each chapter, but no index. It is a book which should be read by everyone interested in the experimental study of audience behavior, being at once a valuable survey of existing information and a challenge to those who can see the incompleteness of previous research and the multitude of unsolved problems.

WALTER H. WILKE, *New York University.*

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THE PHILADELPHIA THEATRE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY: Together with the *Day Book* of the Same Period. By THOMAS CLARK POLLOCK. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1933: pp. 445.

In his Foreword to Thomas Clark Pollock's *The Philadelphia Theatre in the Eighteenth Century*, published by the University of Pennsylvania Press in 1933, Professor Arthur Hobson Quinn states that "From the point of view of chronology" this book "is the beginning of a series in which the record of the Philadelphia stage is to be given with that authority which a detailed study alone permits." *Old Drury of Philadelphia*, by Reese D. James, issued by the same press a year earlier, treats of the second period in the theatrical history of the Quaker City, and is in reality a sequel to the work under consideration here. The two books together constitute a thorough and invaluable record from 1700, when the Assembly of Pennsylvania expressly prohibited "stage-plays, masks, revels," and other "rude and riotous sports," to 1835, when William Burke Wood retired from the management of the Chestnut Street Theatre, and, in the words of Professor James, an epoch came to an end.

Like its sequel, *The Philadelphia Theatre in the Eighteenth Century* is divided into two parts. *Part I* is a "Theatrical History" covering in three chapters the entire eighteenth century, these chapters dealing respectively with the Colonial period, the period of the Revolutionary War, and the years between Yorktown and the close of the century. The narrative, although compressed into sixty-three pages, gives an excellent survey of the birth and development of the drama in Philadelphia, particular emphasis being laid upon the difficulties placed in its way by the Quakers and other citizens who were for

religious or moral reasons bitterly opposed to all play-actors and their nefarious activities. This opposition began early in the century and was restrained only by the tactics of the Colonial governors and finally by the repeated vetoes by George III himself of various measures passed by local assemblies with a view to preventing them.

After the Revolution, the Friends being in the ascendancy, bans were pronounced forbidding all theatrical representations, this despite the fact that the drama had an ardent supporter in the person of General Washington. Note is made of an occasion upon which Lafayette, courteously bowing to local prejudice, gave up a projected trip to the theatre. Warfare continued, for popular demand was strong. "The law prohibiting the theatre was in effect," says Professor Pollock, "and its supporters, numbering many of the most conspicuously moral citizens, intended to see that it stayed in effect. On the other hand, the number of those desiring the drama was increasing; and for a number of years the city was in an unfortunate situation . . . The law was evaded by garbling theatrical performances as concerts and obviously moral lectures, and the theatre was patronized by the best people in the city, from George Washington down. For years a seemingly futile struggle was kept up for the repeal of the prohibition, finally ending in victory in 1789." In February of that year a petition bearing the signatures of 3780 friends of the drama and another signed by 729 opposed to it were presented to the legislature, which a few weeks later settled the matter once and for all by repealing all acts prohibiting the presentation of plays.

This first part of the book discusses the various companies which succeeded in exhibiting their wares both within the city limits and without, and discloses a number of the subterfuges to which they resorted in order to evade the legislative bans. Reported also are the names of many of the players who made history during the century, and the careers of the various theatres.

*Part II*, which is in reality the main body of the book, occupying 330 pages as compared to the sixty-three embraced in *Part I*, is comprised of a "Day Book" or record of all known performances given in the city and its environs between the years 1700 and 1800, with, in addition, items relating to incidents which influenced in one way or another the history of the stage. Of the performances, note is made of the date, the play, the author, the cast, the management, and the theatre. Record is further made, chronologically, of the passage and repeal of the various laws governing the theatre, especially during the

first half of the century. These data have been compiled after an obviously thorough and painstaking combing of all available sources, including fourteen different papers and magazines, the Acts, Votes, and Minutes of the Assembly of Pennsylvania, the Pennsylvania Archives, the records of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, the Minutes of the Common Council of the City of Philadelphia, and the Journals of the Continental Congress and the Pennsylvania House of Representatives. It is almost inconceivable that any facts of importance can have escaped the author's scrutiny.

Professor Pollock has done a piece of work surpassed in magnitude in this field, the history of the American stage, only by Professor Odell's mammoth *Annals of the New York Stage*. That the material does not bulk larger in paper and print is due to the compressed and, one might say, "statistical" form in which it is presented. The treatment is wholly objective. Except for the brief *Part I*, the book has not been written for reading. No attempt has been made to furnish entertainment. It is in the main purely a source book. As that, its value is great. To all those who are seriously interested in the development of the drama in this country, its value in incalculable.

WILLIAM G. B. CARSON, *Washington University*

# IN THE PERIODICALS

BARNARD, RAYMOND H.: "Tangent Fields—English and Speech." *The High School Teacher*, X, No. 9, Nov., 1934, 277.

In our high school system the training of the students in oral work too often is left to an English teacher who is relatively unprepared to give Speech training. However, since some states will not give credit to Speech courses offered as college entrance credits, any Speech training given must be worked into the English course of study. In an attempt to find an adequate solution for the problem, the National Council of Teachers of English, and the National Association of Teachers of Speech, have joined hands. A joint committee has been appointed "to work out common problems in curriculum, objectives and demarcation of subject matter."

The larger part of the article is pointing out the training for the teaching of Speech which the English teacher should have, but which, all too often, she does not possess. Mr. Barnard recommends that the English teacher have at least an undergraduate minor in Speech to help her solve the problems peculiar to oral speech. He calls to the reader's attention the English teacher's need for knowledge in Oral Language, Voice and Action.

The article is written from a common-sense point of view. If it is to be criticized, it is for attempting too much. The material might well be developed into a series of articles. It is unfortunate that the article had to appear in an obscure publication which is listed as having a circulation of only 5,809. Mr. Barnard's article deserves a wider reading.

ROBERT CAPEL

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Every teacher of public speaking will be grateful for the new magazine, *Vital Speeches of the Day*, published by the City News Publishing Company, 33 West 42nd Street, New York City. We must surely all agree with the statement on the inside cover of the first issue:

"Many of the important speeches of the past have either been left unpublished or are scattered in thousands of newspaper files and in private libraries.

To publish in one magazine all the vital speeches of the day would seem to be an urgent public necessity."

And we might add that it should be a real help in the teaching of public speaking.

The magazine is published in two editions, fortnightly and monthly, either of which is $3.00 per year. The fortnightly edition is 8⅜ by 11¼ inches, while the monthly edition is pocket size, similar in external appearance to *The Reader's Digest*. Libraries will probably order the monthly edition.

Each issue contains about twenty speeches. The first issue includes addresses by such individuals as:

President F. D. Roosevelt
Ex-Senator James A. Reed
General Hugh S. Johnson
Roger Babson
Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler
Dr. Glenn Frank
Hon. Newton D. Baker
Hon. Robert La Follette

All the speeches are complete. It seems that they are all printed, not from stenographic records, but from carefully prepared manuscripts, which is just as well for the public, but not nearly so interesting or valuable for teachers of public speaking. The speeches deal with public questions. In the copies available there are no speeches of entertainment, nor any occasional speeches.

College and university librarians have been quick to see the value of this publication. Seventy-eight have already sent in their subscriptions. It is a source of material we cannot afford to miss.

DONALD HAYWORTH, *University of Akron*

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MARCKWARDT, ALBERT H.: "The High School Teacher and a Standard of Usage." *English Journal*, 24, No. 4, April, 1935, 283-291.

The efforts toward linguistic liberalism, being made by the National Council of Teachers of English, have not been productive of outstanding results. Teachers are using about the same method of correcting grammatical errors as were in use fifteen or twenty years ago. The reasons for this are clear. The teacher must either appeal to linguistic treatises, all too frequently unavailable, or to the current textbooks, most of which contain highly doubtful material. In either case, the task of sifting the wheat from the chaff is too great, and

the teacher finally compromises by teaching what is in the prescribed text.

The present problem is to create a demand among teachers for a "fearless, open-minded, and accurate analysis of that level of American English which may be considered a scientifically justifiable schoolroom standard." When the demand is strong enough, textbooks will be written to meet it. In taking stock of himself as a basis for making such a demand, every teacher of English should be familiar with the work of such scholars as Jespersen, Kenyon, Sweet, and others. In addition to this, such journals as *American Speech* should be available to the members of the English and public speaking departments of any high school. "*The English Journal* could profitably carry a bibliographical section on language problems, as well as a permanent usage section."

G. W. G.

SUTTON, VIDA RAVENSCROFT: "Speech at the National Broadcasting Company." *English Journal* (College Edition) XXII, No. 6, 456-460.

The requirements and the training of broadcast announcers are described in this article. As is well known, these requirements are high and the training rigid. An interesting fact which probably is not so well known, is that records have been made, one exemplifying the Eastern or "Cosmopolitan" pronunciation and the other "conforming to Webster in the matter of the consonant *r* and certain vowel values." Another similar record will be made this year.

It is widely believed that the National Broadcasting Company favors a standard form of pronunciation. Such is not the case, according to the author. "In questions of pronunciation [the announcer] takes his choice and uses that most in accord with his own way of speech. There is no attempt made to standardize further. It is considered desirable to have announcers representative of good usage in different parts of the country. My own theory regarding standards is that we are evolving a standard in the United States that promises to unite the most desirable attributes of the various sections: the melody that belongs to some of the southern voices, the vitality of the North and West, and the precision of tongue which is often the most marked characteristic of New England."

G. W. G.

# NEWS AND NOTES

[Please send items of interest for this department directly to Miss Lousene Rousseau, 49 East 33rd Street, New York City.]

The Department of Speech Correction of the Detroit public schools recently celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary. In September, 1910, two centers were opened, with 110 stammerers enrolled. There are now 142 speech centers, in charge of 37 teachers, with 7,015 pupils enrolled. The annual meeting of the Special Education department of the Detroit system, which includes teachers of the anaemic, deaf, blind, crippled, partially sighted, retarded, and problem children as well as speech defectives, was held in the Ballroom of the Hotel Statler, Saturday, March 30, and was in honor of Miss Clara Stoddard, supervisor of the speech improvement classes. Miss Stoddard was one of the two teachers who established the corrective speech work in Detroit twenty-five years ago. The guest speaker at the banquet was Dr. Smiley Blanton, for many years in charge of speech correction work at the University of Wisconsin, and now a practicing psychiatrist in New York City.

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The ninth annual convention of the American Society for the study of Disorders of Speech was held at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, December 27, 28, and 29. At this meeting the name of the organization was changed to the American Speech Correction Association, and the designation of the lower class of membership was changed from Associate to Member, with dues for Members reduced to three dollars a year, and voting privileges restricted to Fellows. Nearly one hundred persons attended the meetings, coming from both coasts and from Canada and Mexico. The papers presented at the meetings, which are listed below, are available in mimeographed form, at cost, and may be obtained from the College Typing Company, Rear 720 State Street, Madison, Wisconsin.

"The Speech Handicapped Student as a Personnel Problem," James F. Bender, College of the City of New York.

"Speech Recording in the Analysis of Reading Difficulty," Joseph Tiffin and Grant Fairbanks, University of Iowa.

"Comprehensive Viewpoint in Speech Correction," Lee Edward Travis, University of Iowa.

"Is Stuttering Inherited?" Joseph Morris Wepman, University of Wisconsin.

"Neurological and Psychological Factors in Voluntary Stuttering," Bryng Bryngelson, University of Minnesota.

"A Photographic Analysis of Eye Movements in Stuttering," Henry Moser, University of Michigan.

"The Effect of Training on the Handedness of Rats in Feeding Activity," Robert L. Milisen, Pennsylvania State College.

"The Development of Sentence-Synthesis in a Pre-school Child," Abraham A. Low, Psychiatric Institute, University of Illinois.

"Auditory Deficiency and Delayed Speech," Sara Stinchfield Hawk, University of Southern California.

"Dyslogia in Mongolism," Charles H. Voelker, Ohio State University.

"Psychoanalysis in Speech Correction," Smiley Blanton, New York City.

"Aids in Correcting Articulatory Defects," Samuel D. Robbins, Boston Stammerer's Institute.

"Some Aids in Dealing with Articulatory Speech Defectives," Bessie Rasmus, University of Iowa.

"Problems in the Teaching of Speech to the Hard-of-Hearing by Means of Sound Amplification," Scott N. Reger, University of Iowa.

"The Analysis and Correction of the Speech of the Hard-of-Hearing," M. Oclo Miller Shaw, University of Iowa.

In addition to the papers, a clinic was held one afternoon in the auditorium of the Nurses' Home of the Children's Memorial Hospital, with demonstrations by Mrs. Frances Perlowski Gaines, of the Children's Memorial Hospital; Anna S. Davis and staff, of the Chicago Public Schools; and Dr. Elmer H. Kenyon, of Rush Medical College. New officers elected were the following: Lee Edward Travis, President; Meyer Solomon, Chicago, Vice-President; Samuel D. Robbins, Secretary; Bryng Bryngelson, Treasurer; Smiley Blanton, Mrs. Mabel F. Gifford, and James F. Bender, Councillors; and Sara Stinchfield Hawk, Chairman of the Membership Committee.

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The twenty-sixth annual meeting of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference was held at the Hotel Victoria, New York City, April 25, 26, and 27. The first day was devoted wholly to the interests of secondary schools, with Miss Emmie Hyams, of Girls' Commercial High School, Brooklyn, in charge, and separate sections scheduled on dramatics, oral interpretation, and speech correction. The remaining programs were as follows:

Friday Morning—Problems of Curriculum and Teacher Training.

"Speech and Changing Educational Values," A. B. Williamson, New York University.

"The Allotment for Humor in Oratory," Father Francis P. Donnelly, Fordham University.

"Fixed Ideas and Our Schools in a Capitalist Society," Frank Walser, author of *The Art of Conference*.

Friday Afternoon—Rhetoric

"Public Discussion in England in the 16th and 17th Centuries," Frederick G. Marcham, Cornell University.

Papers by Lee S. Hultzén, Columbia University; C. Harold King, Colgate University; Richard C. Borden, New York University; and Marion O'Connor, Jamaica High School.

Papers at the remaining sessions will be reported in the next issue of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH. Among the speakers were Donald Oenslager, scene designer; Ulric Moore, Cornell University; Walter Pritchard Eaton, Yale School of Fine Arts; William Angus, Cornell University; Kathryn Mulholland, Brooklyn College; Edward W. Mammen, College of the City of New York; Jane D. Zimmerman, Columbia University; Donald C. Bryant, New York State College for Teachers; J. V. Garland, Colgate University; H. G. Roberts,

George Washington University; Everett L. Hunt, Swarthmore College; L. B. Cornwell, Radio Engineering Products Company; Dr. Smiley Blanton, New York City; Lou Kennedy, Brooklyn College.

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The Speech Department of the University of Denver was host to the fourth annual Rocky Mountain Speech Conference on Feb. 7, 8, and 9. The programs were planned for teachers, college and high school students, and directors of speech activities and pageants in churches. Forty-two division meetings were held, and there were contests in oratory and extemporaneous speaking, and high school and college debates. More than 800 teachers and students were present. The subject for the high school extemporaneous speaking contests was "Federal Aid to Education;" the college subject was "The Influence of the Liberal Arts College on Contemporary Society." There was also an experimental intercollegiate oratorical contest, confined to examples of business and professional talks. Another feature was a series of Tau Kappa Alpha tournament debates, on the proposition: "Resolved: That the Nations Should Agree to Prevent International Trade in Arms and Munitions." The Intercollegiate Debate Senate conducted discussions of two questions of importance to the Rocky Mountain Region: "What Should Be the Policy of the Several States Toward Taxation?" and "What Should Be the Policy of the Federal Government Toward Conservation of Natural Resources?" An experimental intercollegiate debate was presented, and cross-examination debate was held on the national high school debate question; opportunity was also afforded for high school debaters to hear a discussion of this question by experts. A production of Galsworthy's *The Roof* was given for the visitors by the University of Denver's Civic Theatre, under the direction of Walter Sinclair, and the University Park Community Church presented Zona Gale's *The Neighbors*, under the direction of Mrs. Earl C. Wright. One program was devoted to the presentation of scenes from Shakespeare. Among the special luncheons and dinners was one which provided for a program of after-dinner talks by college speakers and teachers; another one heard a reading performance of Sheridan's *The School for Scandal;* still others were devoted to high school forensics and college forensics. One program was assigned to students from the School of Dramatic Arts in Denver and New Mexico Normal University, for Commedia dell' Arte productions.

Among the special section meetings were the following: a round-table on "The Heritage of the Theatre," with papers by Edmund D. Cressman, University of Denver; Beth Rudolph, University of Denver; Bernedetta Daly, Manual Training High School in Denver; Ruth V. Yates, Nebraska State Normal College at Chadron; and Amie Gilbert, Scottsbluff High School, Nebraska: a section on speech laboratory methods, with demonstrations, by Frederic W. Hile, University of Denver; Janice W. McGrew, Tabernash, Colorado; Charles Mead, Dr. Joyce Stearns, Kenneth Nobles, and Dr. W. H. Hyslop, all of the University of Denver: a section on playwriting and criticism, with Lester Raines, New Mexico Normal University; Katherine Ommanney, North High School in Denver; and L. J. Davidson, University of Denver; as participants: a section on acting, with demonstrations by Rebekah Baron, South High School in Denver; Helen Rumsey Robinson, Colorado Woman's College; and Marion Robinson, University of Denver, and their students: a section on rhetoric and

public speaking, with papers by F. W. Lambertson, Iowa State Teachers College; Leroy T. Laase, Hastings College; W. E. Moore, Colorado State College; and Dallas A. Dickey, University of South Dakota: a section on religious drama and pageantry, with papers by Dr. James E. Crowther, Trinity M. E. Church in Denver; Bernice Cook Laverty, Lamont School of Music; and Mrs. Harry E. Bellamy, of the Board of Pageantry of the Episcopal Church of America: a program of verse speaking by choirs of the West High School in Denver, Fort Collins High School, Denver Manual Training High School, Scottsbluff High School in Nebraska, Englewood High School in Colorado, Longmont High School and La Junta High School, both in Colorado. Marion Robinson, of the University of Denver, talked on the subject of arranging literature for choric interpretation. The section on speech pathology and correction heard papers by Julia A. Wright, Denver public schools; Lorena McPeek, Denver Children's Hospital; Chester L. Reynolds, Colorado Psychopathic Hospital; and Dr. T. E. Carmody, Denver surgeon. The speakers on the program on speech and personality were Dr. Franklin G. Elbaugh, Director of the Colorado Psychopathic Hospital; Helen Langworthy, Colorado State Teachers College; and Edna A. Baxter and Elwood Murray, of the University of Denver. Contributors to the symposium on "Speech in the Present Social Science" were Gladys Lewis, of Englewood High School; Tozier Brown, Kenneth Rowe, and F. W. Dickinson, of the University of Denver; and La Verne Bane, of the University of Utah. Lois Griffey, West Denver High School; and Muriel V. Sibell, University of Colorado, were the speakers on the program on scenic design and stagecraft. Speakers on the round table for high school debaters were Keith E. Case, Colorado State Teachers College; J. Edmund Mayer, Topeka High School, Kansas; and C. Dale Fuller, University of Denver. The address at the general session, "Ideals, Speech, and the Teacher," was delivered by Joseph F. Smith, of the University of Utah, President of the Western Association of Teachers of Speech. The address was followed by an oratorical pageant, which presented impressions of the speech life of Abraham Lincoln, and was produced by Frederic W. Hile, with a cast of Denver actors. Besides these programs there were panel discussions of the relation of speech to the high school curriculum, creative speech for the elementary and junior high school child, and oral interpretation, the last two with demonstrations by students.

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The name of the Department of Public Speaking at the University of Oklahoma has been changed to the Department of Speech, and the department authorized to offer a major in speech, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts in Speech. The new chairman of the department is Charles P. Green, who was formerly at Western Reserve University.

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An institute for the training of discussion leaders will be held by the University of Denver Department of Speech and Dramatic Arts, June 20 to 22, in connection with the summer session. Dr. Lyman Bryson, of Columbia University, will conduct the institute, which is being held in co-operation with the American Library Association.

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The Experimental Theatre of Vassar College has announced a summer course in the theatre, open to both men and women, to be held at Poughkeepsie,

June 24 to August 3. The students will live in a campus house and will have access to college facilities available to regular students. During the session two new plays and one revival will be presented, and classwork will be offered in all phases of direction and production. Directors of the summer work will be Hallie Flanagan and Lester E. Lang, both regularly in charge of the Experimental Theatre.

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Programs by verse speaking choirs are becoming an increasingly popular form of activity in speech departments. The latest ones to be reported are those by Pennsylvania College for Women, which will close an active season by taking part in the elaborate May Day pageant to be staged in the outdoor amphitheatre on May 18; and Wellesley College, the latest program of which is given in full:

Part I. Liturgical Reading

Introduction—Ancient Vedic Hymn (Solo and Chorus). Translated by Max Müller.
Advent—Psalm 50 (Antiphonal).
Advent—Dies Irae (Group. Dark voices). Thomas of Celano, 13th century.
Christmas—"I Saw Three Ships Come Sailing" (Solo and refrain.) Old ballad.
Christmas—"A Christmas Masque" (Group and refrain.) W. G. Collingwood.
Easter—"English Easter: 7 A.M." (Solo.) Evelyn Underhill.
Pentecost—Psalm 24 (Antiphonal).

Part II. Imitative Sound in Poetry

"Music Comes" (Solo and group.) John Freeman.
"The Lyke Wake Dirge" (Solo and refrain.) Old ballad.
"The Drum" (Unison. Dark voices.) Edward F. Sutton.
"The Drop of Water" (Solo and chorus. Light voices.) Olave March.
"The Bee's Song" (Unison.) Walter de la Mare.
"For A Mocking Voice" (Antiphonal.) Eleanor Farjeon.

Part III. Dramatic and Narrative Values in Poetry

"Song of the Red War Boat" (Solo and group.) Rudyard Kipling.
"Song of the Dane Harp-women" (Trio.) Rudyard Kipling.
"The Rider at the Gate" (Trio.) John Masefield.
"The Sands of Dee" (Solo and chorus.) Charles Kingsley.
"The Smuggler's Song" (Solo and chorus.) Rudyard Kipling.
"Kubla Khan" (Group). S. T. Coleridge.

Part IV. Imitative Rhythms in Poetry

Country Dance—"Come, Lasses and Lads" (Unison.) Old ballad.
Marching—"Marching Along" (Unison.) Robert Browning.
Waltzing—"Imogen" (Unison.) Sir Henry Newbolt.
Rocking—"A Cradle Song" Padraic Colum.
Tarantella—"Tarantella" (Group.) Hilaire Belloc.
Rolling—"The Rolling English Road" (Unison.) G. K. Chesterton.
Tripping—"Come Down to Kew in Lilac-time" (Group and refrain.) Alfred Noyes.

Galloping—"The War Song of the Saracens" (Unison. Dark voices.) Elroy Flecker.
Highland Fling—"The Deils Awa wi the Exciseman" (Unison.) Robert Burns.

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The Committee for the Advancement of Speech Education in Elementary Schools, of which Irene Poole Davis, formerly of the University Elementary School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, is chairman, reports a remarkable increase of speech work in elementary schools. More than 6,000 children in thirty elementary school systems in thirteen states are enjoying speech education for the first time this year, and more than 150 elementary teachers have become "experimental members" of the committee, and will introduce in their classrooms the activities for speech education suggested by the committee. In response to the unusual interest shown in this work, the committee is anxious to make available to these teachers information of all summer session courses which would be of interest to them, and requests all directors of summer sessions and chairmen of departments concerned to send such information to the chairman of the committee, who will make it available to interested teachers.

## FORENSICS

On Saturday, the 13th of April, Harvard University and the University of Hawaii staged the longest-range radio debate yet to be reported, on the proposition: "Resolved: That Hawaii be admitted to the Union as a State." Harvard supported the negative.

The Reserve Rostrum, speaker's bureau of Western Reserve University, has enjoyed its usual active season, with 22 addresses and open forum discussions and 20 intercollegiate debates and tournaments. Five debate propositions were used, covering the New Deal, prevention of international shipment of arms and munitions, government monopoly of the manufacture of arms and munitions, federal control of crime detection, prosecution, and punishment, and the necessity of abandoning the American isolationist policy as a measure for recovery. The subjects for speeches and discussions covered a wide variety, including munitions, war profits, county government, insects, "dead" languages, Greek sculpture, translators of the Bible, problems of economic reconstruction, the New Deal, socialism, capitalism, fascism, men and machines, health insurance, diet and vegetarianism, leisure reading, and American humorists. Howard S. Woodward is in charge of the Reserve Rostrum.

Pennsylvania State College had close to 70 debates scheduled during the year, with debates held about every other day during March and April. The season included 20 debates for women, debates with Oxford University and the University of Hawaii, and participation in three tournaments. An intramural debate and discussion tournament was sponsored by Delta Sigma Rho. Debating at Pennsylvania State College is in charge of John H. Frizzell, Joseph F. O'Brien, and Clayton H. Schlug.

Syracuse University debaters participated in sixty debates during the year, including 15 extension debates, ten radio debates, and one debate convention. The latter, held at Albany, is now one of the major debate activities in the state. Close to 200 debaters, representing 25 to 30 colleges, assemble for two days of continuous debating in committees and in general assembly. The plan is modeled after the New York State Legislature, and has the active coopera-

tion of Governor Lehman and other prominent citizens. A new feature of the debate work at Syracuse is a group of twelve students who are working to learn coaching techniques, and not participating directly in platform work.

A special feature of the University of Iowa Invitational Debate Tournament this year was a Congressional Session, held the evening of the first day of debates. This program was held as a session of the United States House of Representatives. Each participating school was allowed to have as many representatives as it wished, and the group then organized itself with a Speaker of the House and other officers necessary. The general subject for discussion was selected by a member of the Roosevelt Cabinet.

Washington State College engaged in more than 10 debates during the year. The previous year 117 debates were held.

A speakers' Bureau is being organized at DePauw University, under the direction of H. T. Ross.

The annual Western Reserve University Speech Tournament for high schools of Ohio and Pennsylvania was held in Cleveland, April 12 and 13. The contests which were included in the Tournament were as follows: (1) The nineteenth annual contest in extempore speaking, for which twelve general subjects were announced well in advance, specific subjects being drawn by lot on the day of the contest. The preliminary and final contests were held at the University on the same day, each speaker participating in two preliminary contests. (2) The third annual radio play contest, in which all plays were given under conditions which duplicated actual broadcasting, the winning play being actually broadcast later. (3) The second annual declamation contest, with divisions for dramatic, oratorical, and humorous selections. (4) The third annual radio debate, upon the proposition: "Resolved: That the federal government should adopt the policy of equalizing educational opportunities throughout the nation by means of annual grants to the several states for the support of public elementary and secondary schools." Each school entered four debaters, and each speaker was permitted one seven-minute speech. The final debate was broadcast over Station WHK. Scholarships and trophies were awarded. All contestants and faculty representatives of competing schools were guests of the University at a dinner on the first evening of the tournament. The winners of the extempore speaking contest were invited by the Rotary Club of Cleveland to be its guests at its luncheon on Thursday, April 25, at which time they were the speakers of the day. Howard S. Woodward, Chairman of the Speech Department at Western Reserve University, was in charge of arrangements for the tournament.

The State Debate of the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association was held at the State Capitol in Madison, March 22, followed the next day by a Debate Conference Breakfast at the Wisconsin Memorial Union, with the debaters the guests of the Association. The state debating system of the Wisconsin Forensic Association has been modified to permit the elimination plan of debates to be substituted for the old triangular system. Each team is entitled to at least two debates before eliminations are begun.

The annual New Jersey High School Extemporaneous Speech Contest was held at Perth Amboy late in February. Competitors were expected to study one weekly and one monthly magazine for the two months preceding the con-

test. From them John J. George, of Rutgers University, selected five topics, which were assigned to the speakers a half-hour before the contest.

An elaborate series of high school contests was conducted by the Central Missouri State Teachers College at Warrensburg April 26 and 27. These contests included, in addition to those in debate, extemporaneous speaking, one-act plays, and declamation, contests in spelling, Latin, music, home economics, vocational agriculture, commercial subjects, and field and track.

## DRAMATICS

Current productions at Los Angeles Junior College have included *There's Always Juliet, The Dark Tower, The Ivory Door, She Stoops to Conquer, The Good Hope, The Taming of the Shrew, The Whitcheaded Boy, Curses Foiled Again, Rebound, Clarence, An Imaginary Invalid, A Bill of Divorcement, The Playboy of the Western World, Girls in Uniform,* and *Iphigenia in Tauris.* The dramatic organization at Los Angeles Junior College, known as Plays and Players, is under the direction of Harold Turney, chairman of the Drama Department. Among the activities of the Organization are bi-monthly radio broadcasts of plays, a "Festival of Creative Arts," including original verse, stories, and plays written and presented by students, demonstrations of class work in acting, pantomime, and direction, and exhibits of various kinds.

The 1935 dramatic program at Cornell College, Iowa, included both classic and contemporary plays from ten countries, including Spain, Italy, France, Russia, Germany, England, Ireland, Mexico, China, and the Scandinavian countries. The cycle was opened with studio performances of *The Women Have Their Way,* by the Quinteros, and *Uncle Vanya,* by Chekhov. One of the outstanding events was the first performance in America of Gordon Bottomley's new religious drama, *The Acts of Saint Peter,* given for Easter. The large staff for the play was drawn from the community as well as the college.

The Mount Holyoke Playshop Laboratory has for the second time produced a play in two modes. The play, *The Mothers,* was written by Frances Eckhardt Smith, a former member of the group, and was presented in a naturalistic mode by the intermediate group of the Playshop Laboratory, and in a mechanized constructivist mode by the advanced group. Double casts for each mode permitted two performances of each.

A recent performance at Vassar College has attracted a good deal of attention. The Experimental Theatre there, under the direction of Hallie Flanagan, presented *Question Before the House,* written by Doris Yankauer, a Vassar senior, and David Mayer. The play is concerned with the question of how close the relations should be between a liberal college and the social disturbances around it.

Winter performances at Leland Powers School of the Theatre have included *The Brontes,* directed by Jeanne Merrill Wagner; *Berkeley Square,* directed by Iva Roberts; *The Charm School,* directed by Arthur Holman, who also directed the production of *The Party's Over; The Cradle Song,* directed by Jeanne Wagner; and *A Midsummer Night's Dream,* directed by Iva Roberts.

The annual high school play at the Pontiac High School, Booth Tarking-

ton's *Clarence,* was presented three nights, April 10, 11, and 12, under the direction of W. N. Viola.

## PERSONALS

James Milton O'Neill has resigned his position as Professor of Speech at the University of Michigan, and will assume his duties as head of the new combined Department of Speech at Brooklyn on July 8. The Brooklyn department is one of the largest in the United States, with 22 full-time members. Until now it has functioned in two divisions, one for men and one for women. Professor O'Neill was Chairman of the Speech Department at the University of Wisconsin, and later of the University of Michigan, for many years. He was the first president of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, and likewise the first editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.

Samuel D. Robbins, permanent secretary of the American Speech Correction Association, will offer courses in speech correction and in speech pathology at the Emerson College of Oratory this summer. He has recently been appointed speech corrector at the Massachusetts General Hospital and at the Habit Clinic.

Moroni Olsen, who was recently director of Leland Powers School of the Theatre, has become a member of Katherine Cornell's company. He attracted favorable attention for his performances as Capulet in "Romeo and Juliet," and as the Doctor in the revival of "The Barretts of Wimpole Street."

The new president of Rockford College, Dr. Gordon Keith Chalmers, was president of the debate union at Brown University, and a member of the local chapter of Delta Sigma Rho. He is one of the youngest college presidents in the country, being only thirty years of age.

The program of the Second International Congress of Phonetic Sciences, which meets in London, July 22-26, lists addresses by American phoneticians as follows:

Prof. Miles Hanley, University of Wisconsin, *"Phonographic Recording."*

Dr. J. S. Kenyon, Hiram College, *"Phonographic Records of American Dialects."*

Dr. G. Oscar Russell, Ohio State University, *"Synchronized-Sound-X-Ray-Oscillograph-External-Motion Picture Research on Speech Sounds."*

Prof. R. H. Stetson, Oberlin, *"The Relation of the Phoneme and the Syllable."*

Dr. C. M. Wise, Louisiana State University, *"A Comparison of Certain Features of American and British Pronunciation."*

Mrs. Jane Dorsey Zimmerman, Columbia University, *"Representative American Pronunciation on the Radio."*

Dr. Hans Kurath, Brown University, Director of the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada; and Dr. Robert West, University of Wisconsin, will also deliver addresses, the subjects of which are not yet listed.

Prof. E. W. Scripture, now of Vienna, will discuss *"The Nature of Speech, with Demonstration of Apparatus, Speech Inscriptions and Film Tracks."*